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Communicative Language Testing: Implications for Computer Based Language Testing in French for Specific Purposes*

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Abstract—Current evolutions of language testing have led to integrating computers in FSP assessments both in oral and written communicative tasks. This paper deals with two main issues: learners' expectations about the types of questions in FSP computer based assessments and the relation with their own experience. This paper describes the experience of 23 freshmen French students enrolled in the Universitat Politècnica de Valencia who took a computer based version of a FSP test. Their attitudes were observed and annotated. The learners expressed their difficulties in taking a FSP computer delivered test. The paper suggests that the dramatic change between general French and French for Specific Purposes may imply significant differences in the students to the new computer context due to the changes in vocabulary, register and language use as well as computer ergonomics. The paper concludes: firstly, that basic notions of certain specialized forms and vocabulary should be introduced in high school; secondly, that FSP should tend to be more communicative and that FSP teaching should be more reflective and communicative than it may be in colleges at the moment; thirdly, that if computer based tests may be a valuable tool in FSP testing (García Laborda et al, 2010), item choice and prompts should be carefully considered. The analysis hereby presented is contextualized in computer based language testing and is a relevant part of the OPENPAU (MINECO FFI2011-22442) project.

Index Terms—testing, second language, computers, French

I. INTRODUCTION

Current evolutions of language testing have led to integrating computers in FSP assessments both in oral and written communicative tasks (Roever, 2001; Chapelle and Douglas, 2006; Garc ía Laborda, 2007) due to factors such as economy and task versatility. Overall, computers seem to fit perfectly with the new demands of modern and academic oriented higher education test constructs (Chapelle et al. , 2008; Garc ía Laborda, 2010), additionally the Web 2.0 is beginning to be used for communicative tasks in the latest developments of computer assisted language testing (Vurdien, 2013; Zou, Xing, Wang, Sun & Xiang, 2013; Dudeney & Hockly, 2012).

This paper deals with two main issues: learners' expectations about the types of questions in French for Specific Purposes (FSP) computer based assessments and the relation with their own experience. One of the premises stated by this tentative research in French is that although the students' perceptions towards computer based language testing is that bothpen-and-paper and computer based testing processes (Newton, Acres & Bruce, 2013; Bayazit & Askar, 2012; Inuwa, Taranikanti, Al-Rawahy, & Habbal, 2012; Titus, 2012) are completely different, in fact apart from subtle differences such as the incorporation of mini clips and the improvement of sound quality, differences are usually related to the delivery context (Wauters, Desmet, & Van 2010; de Siqueira, Saez, A., Sevilla-Pavon, & Gimeno-Sanz, 2011); Jin, 2011); Secolsky, & Denison, 2011), feedback performance (gimeno Sanz & De Siqueira, 2009; Jordan & Mitchell, 2009), report production and so. However, student's task perception in language testing (and many other educational aspects) usually comprises part the attitudes construct (Afshari, Bakar, Luan, & Siraj, 2012; Deutsch, Herrmann, Frese, & Sandholzer, 2012); Jamil, Tariq, & Shami, (2012); van, Eggen, Timmers, & Veldkamp, 2012); Timmers, Braber-van, & van, 2013) and also shapes motivation towards educational changes (such as the acceptance of computer based language testing) (Barkaoui, Brooks, Swain, & Lapkin, 2013; Chong, & Lee, 2012; Deutsch, Herrmann, Frese, &

* This article is an evolution of the presentation by Garc ía Laborda and López Santiago at Eurocall 2009 conference (Valencia).

Sandholzer, 2012; Weigle, 2013) Therefore, finding out what the students may think about the computer based tasks seems to be a good indicator for prospective motivation and, in the long run, acceptance and preference. For example, students with two to three years of practice in low stakes foreign language tests may be more adapted and open to take high stakes tests that can have great impact in the professional and academic career by allowing them to achieve high in the university entrance requirement (for instance, in the TOEFL), and access to international universities worldwide.

In relation to their own experiences obtained through computer assisted language tests (CALT), students may have to work with computer for uses far beyond their education in shapes that cannot be predicted currently. Therefore, learning to interact with computers in very compromising situations such as a test may reinforce their mental strength and liberate them from undesired level of anxiety. Besides, students today seem to enjoy interacting with computers and Garc á Laborda et al. (2010a) have verified that operating with computers in language tests can lead to pleasing states of mind currently associated with the “flow effect” like in gaming.

II. EXPERIMENTAL PHASE

This research addressed two main issues: learners’ expectations about the types of questions in French for specific purposes) computer based assessments (namely, Architecture and the relation with their own experience. 23 freshmen French students enrolled in the Universitat Polit écnica de Valencia who took a 7 item computer based version of a FSP test with a format similar to the one found in the Spanish University Entrance examination with a speaking online task. The test gave some feedback through two one hour follow-up focus group meetings. Besides, their attitudes were observed and annotated while taking the computer based test.

Special considerations were assumed in relation to the following aspects

1) *Applied computer literacy*. Although students may be well familiarized with the latest trends in interface and commercial applications, they may also feel awkward when using educational applications especially for testing and even more for language since most of the 23 students had never taken an online language test and hardly worked with language computer applications.

2) *Testing conditions*. Although students knew that the test would have little effect in their grades, testing is always stressful especially when there is no previous experience.

3) *Software Beta version*. Beta versions can be problematic at times and the final result of test can be jeopardized by malfunctions.

4) *Utility*. Even considering that students performed as in a real test, they may encounter little utility in the results since no strong feedback can be obtained from trial tests and thus underachieve in the test.

Observations While Taking the Test

The researchers also considered observing the realization of tasks, their fluency in approaching the tasks and finally the kind of interaction with the test administrators:

1) *The realization of tasks*. Students seemed to be familiarized with the basic visual ergonomics of the testing platform after a short presentation. Apparently the intuitive interface (Described by Garc á Laborda et al., 2010b), its simplicity and visual iconicity facilitated their navigation. As verified through the test analysis, students did not evidence problem with timing and the use of tutorials while taking the test was almost null. Overall, the researchers observed that students tended to follow the test order straightforward with very few exceptions.

2) *Fluency in approaching the tasks*. Students performed in the multiple choice tasks similarly to how they would have performed in normal testing situations. Thus, our interest was placed in the writing and speaking sections. The researchers noticed that students had few problems with both types of tasks. The average time spent on these tasks, as mentioned above, was adequate so the team considered that the students had adapted properly to the testing platform.

3) *Interaction with the test administrators*. Students demanded little attention and asked very few clarifications while taking the test. Apparently, the previous experience the students in the study had with the computers was sufficient to allow them approach the test satisfactorily.

III. RESULTS FROM FOCUS GROUPS MEETINGS

The main information for this paper was obtained through qualitative techniques. First, observations have been presented. Then we preferred focus groups meetings because “social investigation can be enhanced by employing the group interview technique . . . [since it] will provide data on group interaction, on realities as defined in a group context, and on interpretations of events that reflect group input” (Frey & Fontana, 1993, p. 20–21). In this case the researchers believed that data obtained from individual interviews would be repetitive. We considered that individual interviews would bring light into personal processes such as strategies but when a topic is as new as this one for the students, it seems very natural not to get all the intended information and individual interviews can be biased by the interviewer. Denzin and Lincoln (1998) state that focus groups bring different “level[s] of data gathering perspective on the research problem” (p. 53–54) that was considered difficult to obtain through face-to-face interviews. In the focus groups the following data was obtained:

a) *First reactions*. Students acknowledged the benefits of computers in language testing in relation to the following aspects: (1) computer ergonomics, (2) types of questions, (3) enriched images for listening comprehension speaking

activities, (4) appropriateness of tasks. They also mentioned some drawbacks such ID recognition (due to the limited shape of the identity database at that time). Although in general students were happy with the given time, some two had to interrupt the test for different reasons and, obviously, since testing platforms are thought to be use in test conditions, they could not stop their timers so they had problems with time which had an effect on communicative tasks.

b) *Communicative tasks*. At the beginning, some students were somehow shocked by their interaction and seven students had to do the speaking task within the given time. Although debatable in light of more recent research into task design, in this research the competence model by Dobrovolsky's (1996) was followed to address two main aspects: task organization and whether pragmatic competence has a role in French for specific purposes computer based testing.

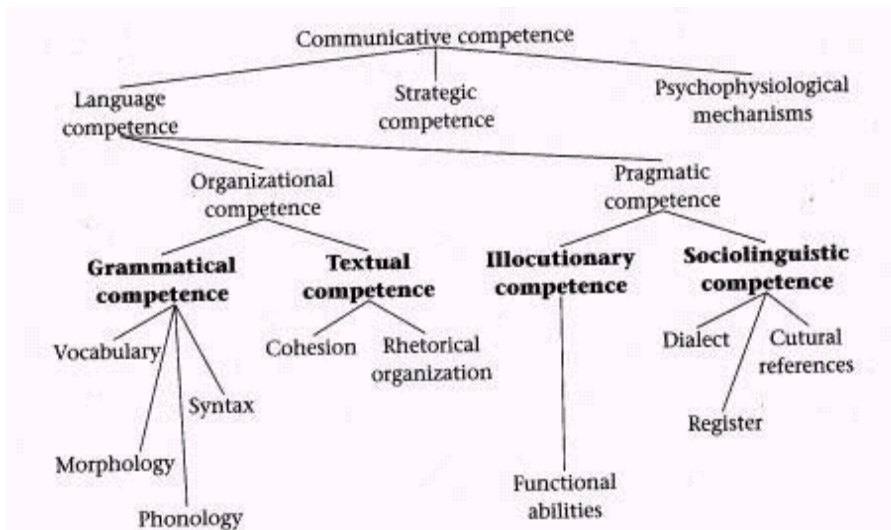


Figure 1. Model of communicative competence (O'Grady & Dobrovolsky, 1996)

In relation to task organization, students seem to follow the linear order established by the test administrators and found little difficulties with the instructions. Students though that communication was rather limited but not any different from any other test. In fact, they felt at ease working face to face with videos and some students even preferred to do the speaking tasks in a computer instead of a human teacher. They mentioned the less afraid of making mistakes in this mode than when they considered that a human rater would position in relation to the testee. They also mentioned that the miniclips helped them to respond to the questions by providing ideas that were not explicit and direct responses to the questions. They also mentioned that questions extremely related to their professional field were too difficult but felt good because those questions were linked to more personal questions that let broader ground for personal responses. They also mentioned that they paid more attention to form than content and that probably prevented them from giving more risky responses to the questions. In relation to pragmatic competence, they observed that the interaction was too “static” and that they would have felt “different” in a person-to-person conversation. They thought that the method was good for descriptions and short answers but not very communicative. On the other hand, since their understanding that languages for specific languages tend to be in form of monologues (presentations, for instance) they believed that this computer based testing system would be acceptable for situations in which the speaker is not expected to interact frequently with the audience.

a) *The importance of training and preparation*. In the students' opinion, even though computer tests can be relevant to their professional skills, computer tests need (or should) be done in two or three sessions. In that case, each section could be enlarged especially the listening and speaking sections. They also think that if a test of this kind is to be implemented at any level of education, it needs to be prepared in class with certain amount of time and it could also be helpful to have some media devices like some of them had in their high school textbooks such as CD Roms, mobile devices or specific websites (Giménez López et al. (2010).

IV. CONCLUSIONS

Computer based language tests can be beneficial for both test administrators and test takers (Garcia Laborda, 2012; Garc á Laborda, Bakieva, Gonzalez-Such, & Pavon, 2010). However, these tests require training (Barkaoui, K., Brooks, Swain, & Lapkin, 2013) which sometimes is not available for the students. In relation to communication, speaking tasks in computer based language tests seem not very communicative at this point. Although some researchers have considered the possibility of semi-directed speaking tasks (Garc á Laborda, 2010) have suggested some aspects of interaction will have to be addressed in the future.

In this experience, the learners expressed their difficulties in taking a FSP computer delivered test. They also mentioned that there is a great gap in communicative tasks between general French and French for specific purposes that may imply significant differences in their own adaptation to the new computer context due to the changes in

vocabulary, register and language use as well as computer ergonomics. Further research may need to address the following aspects: first, the introduction of basic notions of certain specialized forms and vocabulary while in high school; second, FSP should tend to be more communicative; third, FSP teaching should be more reflective and communicative than it may be in colleges at the moment; fourth, if computer based tests may be a valuable tool in FSP testing (García Laborda et al, 2010) in the future, item choice and prompts should be carefully considered. The analysis hereby presented is contextualized in computer based language testing and is a relevant part of the OPENPAU project (MINECO FFI2011-22442) project.

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Future Language Teachers as Experts in the Subject: Developing Cultural Content Knowledge in Teacher Education

Mathea Simons

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Abstract—Teachers have many roles to fulfill. One of the most important roles is that of expert in the subject field they teach. Teachers should master the contents of the subject and should be able to deepen understanding and insight in these contents. Language teachers do not only teach the foreign language. They are also responsible for the teaching of the culture of the language. This article reports on a project on cultural content knowledge of future language teachers in teacher education. The project establishes that testing instruments and remediation materials are more effective when adapted to the future target context. Culture is a wide concept. Selecting the basic contents in manuals which are students' future working material appears to contribute to their motivation. Moreover, the meaning of culture is twofold as it can be split into Culture with a capital c and culture with a small c. If we want to contribute to intercultural language teaching, both components need to be addressed.

Index Terms—teacher education, foreign language teaching, cultural content knowledge, assessment, remediation

I. TEACHERS AS EXPERTS OF THE SUBJECT

A. One Teacher, Many Roles

A teacher has many roles to fulfill. In their description of the “ideal teacher” Van Gennip and Vrieze (2008) divide teachers' roles into three interacting categories: specific content knowledge, interventions and person.

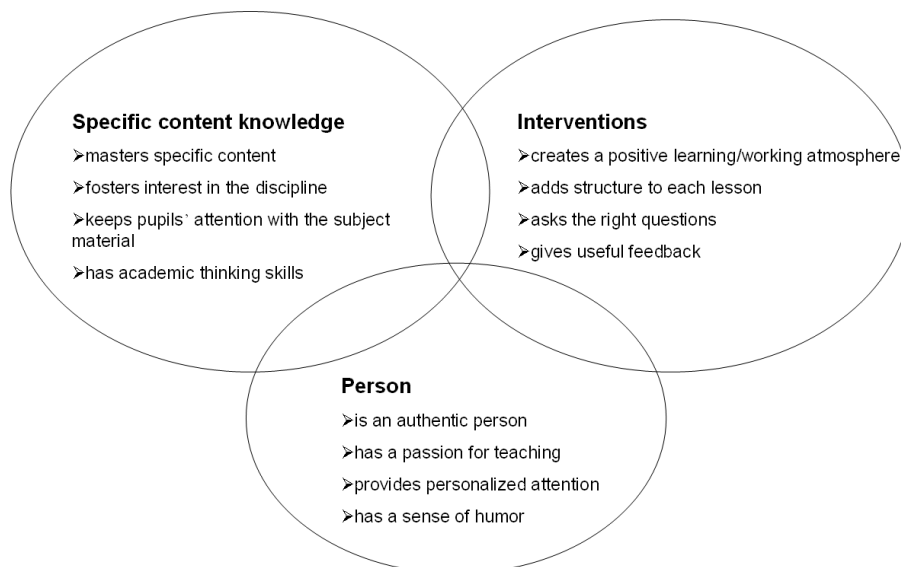


Figure1. Quality model of Van Gennip & Vrieze (2008)

Van Gennip and Vrieze (2008, p.7) suppose that no teaching is possible without specific content, that there is no effect on learners without the adequate educational interventions, and that class management suffers from the lack of the right personal characteristics. This threefold division is also established by previous research (i.e. Verloop 1999, 2003; Verloop, van Driel & Meijer 2001; Van Essen & Timmerman, 2007). There is a difference in the learnability of the components. Specific content knowledge is the most learnable. (Didactic) interventions suppose some challenge but are also quite learnable. As for the person of the teacher, there is ample space for improvement, even though this is less evident (Van Gennip & Vrieze, 2008).

B. Expertise of the Subject

There is vast consensus on the fact that teachers ought to be content experts and master subject matter. Kamp (2007) refers to some research showing that teachers with sound content knowledge are able to identify learners' initial knowledge, ask better questions, give better instructions and allow more contributions from learners. In such a perspective, content knowledge appears as a key to teachers' autonomy.

The importance of the role of expert in the subject is emphasized in numerous studies (e.g. Hill e.a. 2005; Kendall & Marzano, 1997; Kleickmann e.a. 2013; Loewenberg Ball e.a. 2008) and in many countries this role is an essential part of the Competences profile of future teachers and/or the Teachers' career profile.

The role of expert in the subject is correlated with teachers' knowledge of the subject they are to teach. This is the knowledge-oriented dimension, i.e. the teacher as expert in the content. Shulman (1999) makes an inventory of the seven types of knowledge teachers should have at their disposal: content knowledge, general pedagogical knowledge, curriculum knowledge, pedagogical content knowledge, knowledge of learners, knowledge of educational contexts and knowledge of educational ends. This article focuses on the first kind of knowledge. Shulman refers to Bruner (1967) defining *content knowledge* as 'the theories, principles, and concepts of a particular discipline.' This basic knowledge is related to the teachers' initial training (in all its forms) and, later, to teachers' continuing education.

There is an interface between content knowledge and pedagogical content knowledge. Shulman defines it as follows: '[Pedagogical content knowledge] represents the blending of content and pedagogy into an understanding of how particular topics, problems or issues are organized, represented, and adapted to the diverse interests and abilities of learners, and presented for instruction.' (Shulman, 1999, p.66). Depending on the content, teachers ought to be able to judge which approach is the most adequate, taking into consideration the moment, the specificities of the learners and the context. Aside from this, they are also expected to know how they can monitor and evaluate learners (Van Driel, 2009). Content knowledge goes before pedagogical content knowledge. It is evident that before passing on content in an adequate way, teachers must first master the content themselves.

C. Content Knowledge of Starting Teachers: A Current Concern

There is growing concern about (starting) teachers' basic content knowledge of the subject (Kamp, 2007). Several subjects are affected. The following can be quoted as telling examples: the unsatisfactory language skills among primary education teachers (Onderwijsinspectie, 2004; Edulex, BaO/2005/01; Feys & Gybels, 2006) or the limited calculation skills of the upcoming generation of primary school teachers (Van der Neut, 2007; Heather e.a. 2005).

As regards the causes of decreasing content-specific knowledge, some point to student inflow in teacher education that is more diverse than in the past and increasingly generates from technical or vocational education. Others look in the direction of the output. As the financing of tertiary education in several European countries is highly dependent on the output, i.e. the number of graduations, the pressure on content-specific knowledge would have lowered. The media have joined in the debate and aspects of the problem are sometimes considered as finding their cause in teacher education (e.g. Van Essen & Timmerman, 2007; Kamp, 2007).

Does teacher education pay enough attention to the basic subject-specific knowledge of pre-service teachers (Grossman 1990, Kleickmann e.a. 2013)? Some teacher education curricula pay great attention to the disciplinary component of the function. This is mainly the case for integrated teacher training programmes in which content knowledge and pedagogical knowledge are closely knitted. Other curricula are based on the assumption that specific content knowledge has already been acquired before starting teacher education and that it is better to focus mainly (*casu quo* only) on the specific pedagogical and didactic knowledge. This is often the case for (postgraduate) teacher education programmes in which the main focus is on pedagogical content knowledge, as it is assumed that content knowledge of the subject itself has already been acquired.

In this article, we focus on the expertise we can expect from future teachers of French as a foreign language in the last years of secondary education. The institutional context is a one year teacher education programme for students who have already obtained their master degree (= postgraduate programme).

D. Language Teachers = Teachers in Language and Culture

Language teachers' basic subject content knowledge relates on the one side to knowledge of the target language itself, i.e. the basic linguistic knowledge. This includes both oral and written competences, but also an analytic insight in the lexicon, grammar, and language pragmatics, so that they might immediately identify the causes lying behind students' mistakes and propose adequate remediation. On the other hand, language teachers are also expected to impart cultural knowledge as well as intercultural attitudes and competences. This explains why the literature favours the term of "language and culture teacher" as coined by Byram and Morgan (1994) rather than that of "language teacher". At cultural level, language teachers will help their students build on a background of positively registered cultural knowledge and experience, thereby stimulating higher levels of intercultural competence. Such a systematic approach and enrichment of their cultural background over several school years works as a jigsaw: the more you complete it, the more it will render the coherence and harmoniousness of the studied language.

As regards the content and objectives of cultural education itself, an important evolution can be observed. Until the 1960's the first aim was to get acquainted with the cultural heritage of the target language (literature, masterpieces). From the 60's onwards, popular culture – i.e. traditions, habits, attitudes etc. – were progressively included in cultural

education and pupils/students were encouraged to reflect on their own culture. Later on, cultural education would grow into intercultural foreign language education (Sercu, 2006). Liddicoat e.a. (2003) refer to Byram and Zarate's (1994) list of objectives in foreign language learning:

1. Knowledge (Savoir): individual and societal knowledge of own and foreign culture;
2. Knowing as understanding (Savoir-Comprendre): competences for interpreting and accounting for information;
3. Knowing as learning/doing (Savoir-Apprendre/Faire): competences for discovering and acquiring
4. Knowing as being (Savoir-Etre): attitude towards own culture and foreign culture
5. Knowing as commitment (Savoir-S'engager): developing a critical attitude and a social conscience

In order to reach these objectives, language teachers need to develop their own specific knowledge, attitudes and competences.

Present day (foreign) language teachers have mainly been trained as "language teachers" and less as "language and culture teachers". Consequently the knowledge, skills and competences they have acquired during their (teacher) training are first aimed at the efficient organisation of foreign language teaching and the cultural element is less central (Sercu, 2006).

This article focuses on the acquisition of cultural basic knowledge (i.e. Savoirs cf. supra point 1). We are aware that this is only a first step on the way to our final objective, i.e. training our teachers to develop their own intercultural foreign language teaching skills and pass them on. However, it is necessary to work on teachers' basic cultural knowledge before considering the broader problem of their acquisition of (inter)cultural competences. It is therefore a first step, but its importance should not be underestimated (cf. the review study by Byram & Feng, 2004).

II. WORKING ON BASIC CULTURAL KNOWLEDGE DURING TEACHER TRAINING: THE CONTEXT

The course Didactics of French (FLE – français langue étrangère) at the University of Antwerp includes a diagnostic analysis of the initial situation at the start of the programme. This analysis relies on two kinds of tests: a language test and a culture test.

Until recently, i.e. before the project described in this article was implemented, the initial culture test was a written one. Test items were calibrated on several levels (productive and receptive) and both active and passive knowledge were evaluated. Nevertheless, the choice of test items was open for improvement as the items exclusively referred to Cultural elements (Culture with a capital letter) and were selected only on the basis of intuition of the team members involved in the course module. If the test revealed shortcomings in language or in culture, remediation was left to students' own initiative (although reference books were provided). The initial situation analysis did not entail further consequences.

In recent years the need of a well-founded testing instrument for culture as well as for follow-up in the form of remediation has become more salient. The level of incoming students in the course module is increasingly heterogeneous (there is greater diversity among the students, implying more varied content preparation). The course module is accessible to Masters (from Universities or Higher Institutes) with 60 credits (ECTS) in the target language as well as to students (academic) Bachelors still in their Master years, provided they acquire 60 ECTS in the target language by the end of their training. Students from varied backgrounds are accepted: Film and theatre sciences, Literature of the Modernity, Multilingual Business Communication, Language and Literature Studies, Applied Linguistics, Translation and Interpretations (with French as a major or as a minor language). Some students follow the main trajectory. The others, following a LIO-baan traject (= studying & teaching), are requested to participate to (part of) the practical component of the training while taking up a teaching assignment. Besides, the course module also attracts a high number of working students.

The main objective of the course module and of its practical component is to provide a theoretical and practical frame of reference thanks to which students learn how to teach French. The target context is secondary education, but the course also prepares to teach in continuing education.

There is a growing lack of balance between the contents that future teachers are expected to teach and students' actual active knowledge. In order to ensure teachers are informed from the onset, to raise awareness among them, and to allow them to acquire the expected knowledge in French culture during their training, we developed an assessment instrument (Section III. of this article) as well as matching remedial material (Section IV.). We also searched ways to integrate cultural knowledge in the curriculum (Section V.).

III. DEVELOPMENT OF AN ASSESSMENT INSTRUMENT FOR CULTURE

A. Contents

Prior to working on the assessment instrument itself, we deemed it necessary to make an inventory of all the cultural elements in textbooks for secondary and continuing/adult education. Cultural knowledge is indeed a broad concept that allows a wide variety in content. We thought it best to acquaint students as thoroughly as possible with the elements they will be expected to teach in their future career. Therefore we decided to use French manuals as a corpus.

We based ourselves on 10 series of textbooks frequently used in secondary and adult education (in Flanders, Belgium): *Arcades*, *Arcades Réseau*, *Branché Concorde*, *En ligne*, *En scène*, *Étapes*, *Parcours*, *Pourquoi Pas* and

Rond-Point. We took into account all the available learning material in these series: elementary books, workbooks, user guides for teachers, listening material etc. The basic corpus for our inventory comprised 78 separate sources.

The initial inventory included 1700 cultural items. These items were further categorized and converted into a databank of 834 test items. The following table shows the test items divided into content areas and levels.

TABLE 1.
CLASSIFICATION OF TEST ITEMS IN CONTENT AREAS AND LEVELS

	Level 4 (= lowest)	Level 3	Level 2	Level 1 (=highest)	Total
BD – bande dessin ée (Comics)	6	9	0	1	16
Chanson (Songs)	42	17	25	22	106
Cin éma	4	3	22	11	40
Gastronomie	10	5	7	6	28
G éographie	22	5	3	2	32
Histoire	41	20	93	36	190
Litt ération	7	19	83	167	276
Monuments	10	40	5	6	61
Peinture	3	10	9	12	34
Soci é	16	10	6	17	51
Total	162	139	253	280	834

A level of difficulty between 1 (= highest level) and 4 (=lowest level) was assigned to each test item. This would allow students to be tested on a growing scale. The degree of difficulty of the questions was mainly fixed according to the presence of the tested items in the textbooks used in the study (i.e. level of difficulty based on intended educational level). The cultural items that are introduced in the lower years of French teaching (lower years in secondary and adult education) were classed under levels 4 and 3. The cultural items presented in the higher years (higher years in secondary education; advanced levels in adult education) were allotted to levels 2 and 1 (= highest level).

The level of difficulty of the items was also further determined by the intended fluency. Levels 4 and 2 contain items testing the receptive knowledge of cultural items. Levels 3 and 1 list items related to productive knowledge. In order to gauge receptive knowledge, the question types included multiple choice, association and classifying exercises. Productive dominion was tested with open questions.

Aside from defining the level of difficulty, building the evaluation system and establishing the intended competences, the following criteria were also taken into account in the production of the evaluation system: length of the item, feedback modalities, relatability of items and integration of media (image, audio and text).

The content of the assessment instrument can be typified as follows:

- Assessment instrument consisting of a question pool of 836 test items;
- Test items classified into 10 content areas;
- Test items classified according to difficulty level and intended fluency:
- Level 4: receptive knowledge: lower years of secondary and adult education;
- Level 3: productive knowledge: lower years of secondary and adult education;
- Level 2: receptive knowledge: higher years of secondary and adult education;
- Level 1: productive knowledge: higher years of secondary and adult education.

B. Technical Specification

We chose to administer the test on Blackboard. However, the test items were stocked in an independent database structure (Access), which allows us to use the same test contents for other devices or objectives.

The specification of the assessment instrument was made on the basis of the following elements:

- Blackboard does not provide advanced adaptive routines based on a detailed analysis of the individual test items. The adaptivity of Blackboard is restricted to testing itself. Therefore we opted for a semi-adaptive trajectory on Blackboard. Students start at level 4 and can gradually progress to level 1.

- There is a Blackboard test for each level. These tests consist of a number of ‘random blocks’ i.e. a selection of questions chosen at random from a pool of questions for a specific level and a specific content area (e.g. level 4 – Chanson; see also Table 2). For each block of questions, we specified the number of questions that were taken from the pools. During the test, the question blocks were presented at random. In this way, students can use the assessment instrument several times without having to do the same test.

- For each level, we fixed a threshold or cut score. If students reach the cut score, they can move up to the next level. If they don’t, they will have to do the level again or all over again. Students are allowed an unlimited number of attempts per level. However, there is a time limitation for the whole test, i.e. 1 hour, as well as a time limitation for each attempt, i.e. 25 minutes per level.

- After each attempt at reaching a level, students are granted an estimation of their score (e.g. “you will have to do this level again/ you can go on”, completed with an indication of their score (red bar/ orange bar/ green bar).

- At the conclusion of the full test, students receive a global report, with the mention of the percentage reached per level.

C. Test Progress

When loading a specific test, a selection of 25 questions per level is made, distributed over the content areas in a balanced way:

TABLE 2.
CLASSIFICATION OF ITEMS FOR A SPECIFIC TEST IN CONTENT AREAS AND LEVELS

	Level 4 (= lowest)	Level 3	Level 2	Level 1 (=highest)
BD – bande dessin ée	1	2	0	1
Chanson	6	3	2	2
Cin éma	1	1	2	1
Gastronomie	2	1	1	1
G éographie	3	1	1	1
Histoire	6	3	8	3
Litt ération	1	3	8	13
Monuments	2	7	1	1
Peinture	1	2	1	1
Soci é	2	2	1	1
Total	25	25	25	25

The following figure gives an idea of the global test progress. R refers to the result (latest result, mean result of all the tests or first result).

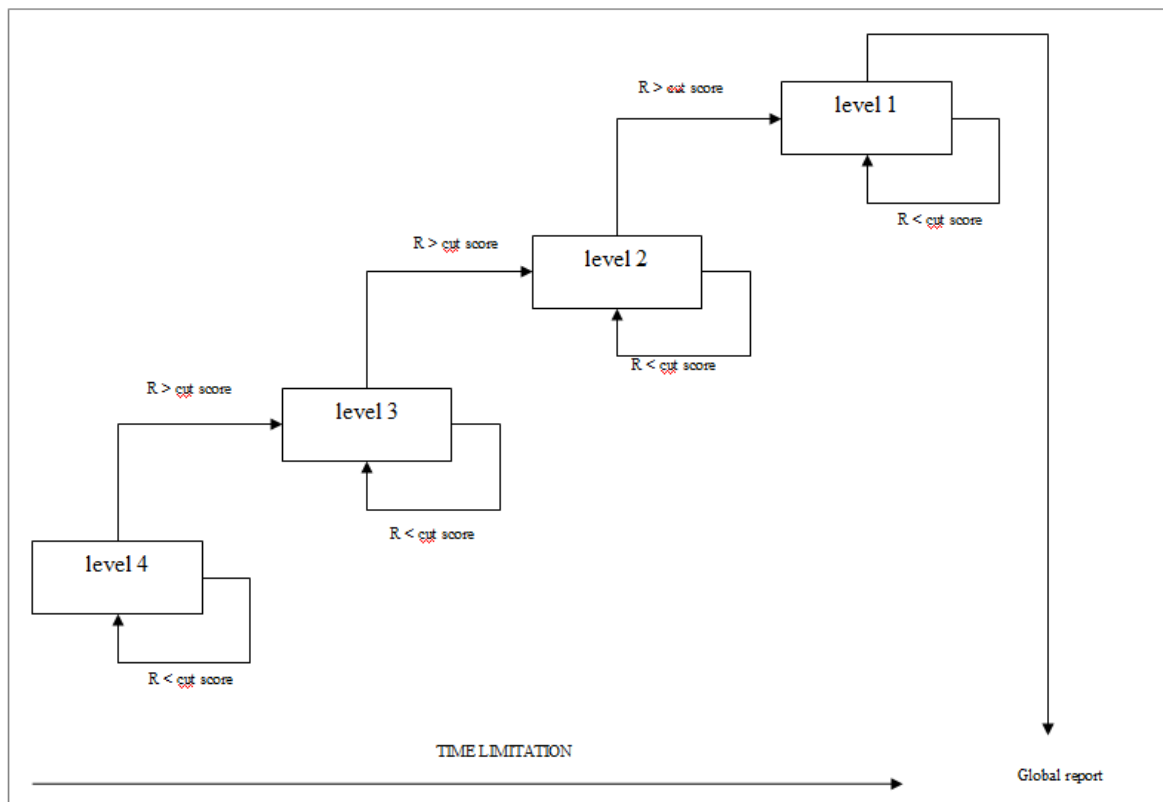


Figure2. Progress of a semi-adaptive test in Blackboard

If student don't pass the cut score ($R < \text{cut score}$), they have to do a test at the same level. If they pass the cut score ($R > \text{cut score}$) they can go further to the next level. At the end of the test, they receive a global report detailing the given answers and providing an idea of the problematic areas of knowledge.

Combined to level content, this is what is obtained for a test at level 4 (test = collection of random blocks):

- random block 1: 1 question selected out of the question pool "level 4 – BD"
- random block 2: 6 questions selected out of the question pool "level 4 – chanson"
- random block n: x questions selected out of the question pool "level x – content area x"

The following figure gives an idea of some of the test items as well as of the lay-out of the test.

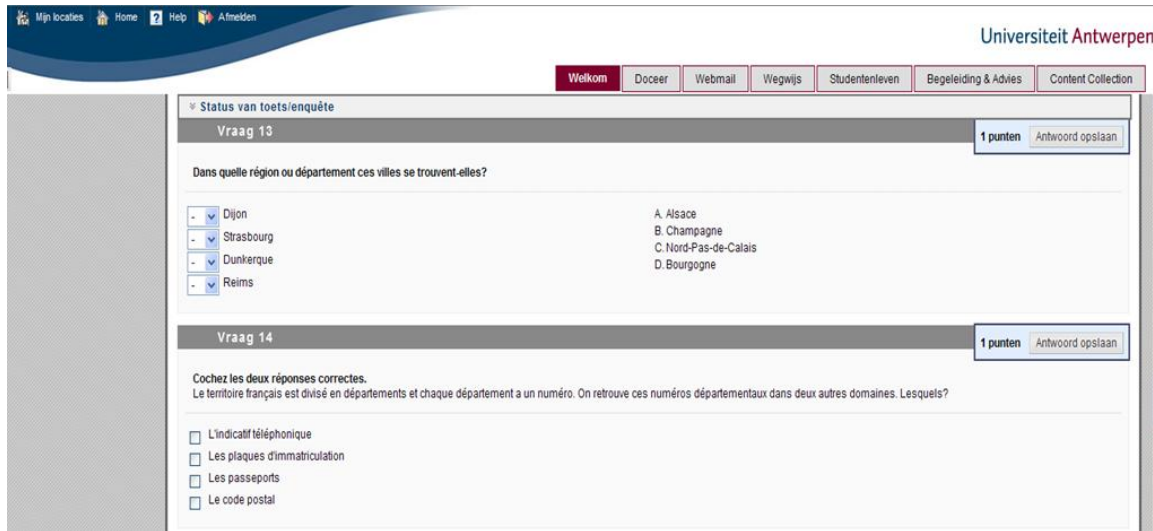


Figure3. Example of test items

In the last phase, the assessment instrument was tested and updated. To this purpose, pilot versions were given to students in French didactics (n=18), teaching assistants (n=2) and teachers of French (n=4).

IV. DEVELOPMENT OF REMEDIAL MATERIAL

A flaw in the previous system of diagnostic analysis of the initial situation was the lack of follow-up (cf. Section 2 of this article). After the gaps in content were identified, remediation was left to students' own initiative. While developing the assessment instrument for culture, we therefore decided to work on providing extra remediation material.

When students don't pass the assessment test, they have to follow a remediation trajectory, but only in the domains in which shortcomings were observed. This is the case, for instance, if a student scores high on the content areas *Cinéma, Gastronomie, Géographie, Histoire, Littérature* and *Monuments*, but doesn't reach the minimum level for the content areas *BD, Chanson, Peinture* and *Société*. Such a student will have to follow a remediation trajectory in the latter content areas alone. In order to prepare students specifically to the contents as tested by the assessment instrument, we chose to provide them with remediation trajectories in the form of electronic workbooks and therefore designed one workbook per content area. In these self-study workbooks, the basis items were collected as they were inventoried in the initial database.

Figure 4 and 5 show items of the remedial material for *Géographie* and *Chanson*.

- 5. A chaque région, sa spécialité. Associez ces plats français à leur région d'origine. Puis, placez-les sur la carte.



Les régions	Les plats
1. L'Alsace	a. Le camembert
2. La Bourgogne	b. Le cassoulet
3. La Bretagne	c. Les cavallions
4. La Bretagne	d. La choucroute

Figure4. Example of remedial material (*Géographie*)

As for the working methods, the approaches used in the remediation trajectory are varied. Here are some of the methods that were used:

- Working on self-study texts and exercises (with keys);
- Looking for specific information in reference books, publications and websites and answering questions;
- Getting familiar with the item: e.g. listening to songs or texts (e.g. YouTube), reading books or articles, following the news and reporting on it, filling in famous texts, poems, quotations, chansons, etc.;
- Developing a webquest or a portfolio on a cluster of items e.g. *Découverte de Paris et ses monuments*;
- Producing a class preparation or a project on a given topic etc.

d) **Julien Clerc**

Complétez les titres de ces chansons de Julien Clerc

- « Ce n'est ____ » rien
- « Ça fait ____ le Bon Dieu » pleurer
- « Des jours entiers à ____ » t'aimer



e) **Coluche**

Quel est le nom du groupe de chanteurs qui chantent chaque année au profit des "Restos du coeur"?

- Le groupe s'appelle « Les Enfoirés »



f) **Joe Dassin**

Joe Dassin est un chanteur français d'origine étrangère. D'où vient-il?

- Des Etats-Unis

Ses chansons les plus connues sont « Et si tu n'existais pas », « L'été indien » et « Les Champs-Élysées ». Ecoutez-les sur [YouTube](#).



Figure5. Example of remedial material (*Chanson*)

Further fine-tuning of the content area in the remediation trajectory is decided in accordance with the student, depending on his or her specific needs. In the meantime, the student can ask teachers or assistants for support or feedback. When students complete their remediation trajectory, they can use the assessment instrument again in order to measure their progress. If they reach the minimum level, they are allowed to start teaching their practical lessons (in the second semester).

V. CULTURE: AN INTEGRATED PART OF THE CURRICULUM

For students starting their teacher training with shortcomings in their basic culture knowledge, remediation trajectories provide considerable support. Students without these apparent shortcomings went through the teacher training programme without paying extra or specific attention to their cultural knowledge. As teacher trainers we considered this was a missed opportunity, especially as, thanks to our corpus analysis (cf. Section III., A.), we had a clear understanding of the cultural elements present in French textbooks.

From this starting point, we decided to work further on these data and to include them in the curriculum. This led to a project on webquests called *CultureQuests*, in which all the students take part. Each student chooses a topic from the common bowl of cultural elements and works out a webquest (integration of ICT). These webquests are also linked to the levels of the Common European Framework of Reference (CEFR).

In this way, students not only increase their own knowledge of a specific cultural topic, but they are also introduced to their fellow students' topics, as they all make a presentation of their webquest for peer evaluation.



Figure6. Example of a webquest of the project CultureQuests

The webquests are made available online on the following site: <http://www.ua.ac.be/didaktiekfrans>.

This way, students are also stimulated in making a further use of this material in the frame of autonomous learning in their future jobs as teachers of French.

VI. CONCLUDING REMARKS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

This article reports on efforts made towards developing basic content knowledge in the course of didactics of French as a foreign language, with an eye on improving future teachers' basic cultural knowledge. It could work as a source of inspiration for other language-specific didactics, as there is increasing concern about declining discipline-specific knowledge (cf. Kamp, 2007; Van Gennip & Vrieze, 2008).

The importance of discipline-specific knowledge has been underlined in several studies. Therefore, sufficient attention should be paid to this aspect of education in teacher education. It should not be taken for granted that incoming students have sufficient discipline-specific content knowledge.

Language teachers' discipline-specific content knowledge includes both linguistic and cultural elements. In order to improve the basic cultural knowledge of future teachers of French as a foreign language, an assessment instrument and matching remediation trajectories were developed. The assessment instrument (available on Blackboard) provides detailed feedback on students' level. When students fail to reach the cut score, they can work on their shortcomings by themselves through outlined remediation trajectories closely reflecting the contents of the assessment instrument and available as electronic workbooks. While following the remediation trajectory, students are allowed to use the assessment instrument ad libitum, in order to evaluate their own progress. At the end of the remediation trajectory, they are evaluated by means of a summative test as a prerequisite for the practical lessons. Thanks to this project, cultural knowledge could be included as a central part of the curriculum. Each student works on a specific cultural topic and makes a webquest out of it.

For many, discipline-specific content demands are positive both for students and teachers. Good discipline-specific content knowledge and sound basic competences broadly determine what a good teacher is. This means that both in teacher education and in continuing education, attention should be paid to the acquisition of discipline-specific knowledge (and competences). Developing subject-specific knowledge is not an obstacle to graduating as a teacher. It is a basic attitude of teachers to keep up with their discipline.

This project enables us to formulate some recommendations for good practice, directed to language teacher trainers or teacher trainings willing to commit to discipline-specific expertise:

- Pay attention to content knowledge in teacher training. Content knowledge precedes the pedagogical content knowledge a future teacher has to develop. Teacher training programmes should deepen understanding and insight in these contents.

- As far as the development of an assessment instrument for content knowledge is concerned:

- Focus preferably on the contents the future (language) teachers will have to teach themselves. Textbooks of the intended levels can be valuable tools in order to develop a corpus of contents.

- Include the contents in an independent database. Electronic learning environments (e.g. Blackboard) will not be used forever. An independent database offers the possibility to use the same contents for other pedagogical devices or tools (e.g. textbooks).

- Give students the opportunity to practice as often as they want.

- Determine minimum levels: future teachers should not start teaching in real class situations if the minimum knowledge is not mastered.

- Pay attention to remediation: these contents should be closely related to the test contents. Remediation is only necessary for the domains the student/future teacher has lacuna in.

- Try to integrate content knowledge in the (broader) curriculum of teacher education. The development of webquests on specific (cultural) topics can be an interesting tool.

Content knowledge cannot be left to chance. Through remediation strategies, re-testing and links with pre-service training, students are likely to develop an increased awareness of its importance. Besides, they will also strengthen their self-efficacy beliefs.

Subject content requisites for teachers and pupils are (often) considered positive, The capacity to activate content and to acquire basic competences undoubtedly have an influence on determining what a good teacher should be. Therefore, more effort should be made, both in pre-service and in-service training, to acquire subject-specific knowledge (and competences).

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Analysis of EFL Teaching Methods for Taiwan University Students

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Abstract—This study looks into three outstanding EFL teachers' classrooms in a Taiwan university setting using teachers' syllabi, questionnaire surveys, interviews with students and teachers, and evidence of students' improvements in English proficiency. The teaching methods have proven to be effective in achieving results and are appreciated by the teachers' students. Their teaching methods adopted in the classrooms were analyzed and identified. A paired t-test was used to examine the students' improvement between a pre-MEPT proficiency test and a post-MEPT proficiency test. Questionnaires and interviews were used to gain insight into the students' perceptions of learning experiences. The teachers were also observed and interviewed about what methods and how they utilized to help students learn. The study found that (1) classroom teaching is not attributed to a single superior method; (2) cooperative learning techniques of Communicative Language Teaching and Cooperative Learning methods combined with traditional Grammar-Translation teaching instruction worked effectively for university students; learning tends to take place when students are willing to actively participate in learning activities which might be something new or challenging to them; (3) the paired t-tests proved that the students of all three teachers made statistically significant improvement in overall performance over students in the Freshman English classes.

Index Terms—cooperative learning, EFL context, learner-centered, EFL teaching methods, students' perspective

I. INTRODUCTION

Taiwanese students' English competency emerges with two extremes – either very good or very poor. This phenomenon reflects across primary school, high school and college students (Lo, 2005; San, 2005). According to Chien and her colleagues' study of 4,250 freshman non-English majors (2011), university students realized the importance of English for their current academic pursuits and future professional careers. They also had a desire to be able to communicate with foreigners in English. Under these conditions, students should be motivated to make an effort to improve English after entering the university. However, quite a portion of university students feel their English ability keeps declining year after year since the time they attend university, compared with the time in which they studied English more hours in high school. Previous studies have also shown that students' expectations of English programs in university have not been satisfied (as cited in Chien, 2014). After having put in so much effort and time working with students, many teachers are also disappointed by the reactions and comments on the Student Evaluation of Teaching reports (SET). How can the EFL teachers help students learn? There is no doubt that teachers' teaching methods and practices all contribute to a successful teaching. This study aims to compare the teaching methods and practices of the three favorable model teachers' teaching in the EFL classrooms for a non-English majors' program in a Taiwanese university.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

Chien (2014) has reviewed the studies regarding foreign language learning and teaching to help foreign language learners. The mostly frequently adopted teaching methods in the EFL contexts have included the Grammar-Translation method (GT), Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) and Cooperative Learning (CL). The GT method originated in Germany in the 1780s (Howatt & Widdowson, 2004). By the early 19th century, however, the GT method suffered serious opposition, both from within Germany and from abroad (Howatt & Widdowson, 2004). Much of this opposition came from the fact that the method was developed by scholars for scholars, requiring a high-degree of knowledge of the first language grammar. However, the GT method has been resurrected in recent years – albeit in a modified form—by combining it with CLT techniques (Sapargul & Sartor, 2010). Methodical review of second/foreign language teaching reveals that a significant shift in the field towards communicative teaching has taken place on the basis of many theoretical propositions and insights from anthropology, sociolinguistics, psycholinguistics, and communications concerning the notion of communicative competence. The roots of the transition to communicative teaching can actually be traced back to the 1960s (Richards & Rogers, 2001) and is partially attributed to Noam Chomsky's Syntactic Structures which claimed that the theories adopted by linguists at the time failed to take into account the creativity and uniqueness of language (Chomsky, 1957). Since then, CLT has been widely discussed and taught in language classrooms around the world, with no small thanks to the work of D.A. Wilkins. Wilkins' (1976) work on CLT, found in

Notional Syllabi, an expansion of his earlier work (1972), contributed a great deal to the development of the teaching method that was still fairly new in his time. In the latter half of the 1970s, CLT continued to expand in scope (Richards & Rogers, 2001). Yet while the scope of CLT was increasing, CLT's primary goal remained focused on teaching communicative competence in areas including grammatical competence, psycholinguistic or strategic competence, socio-cultural competence, and discourse competence (Savignon, 1983).

Today, CLT attends to the communicative needs of learners in the sense that instrumental and pragmatic aspects of language use are cultivated so that the motivations of the learners are more often better sustained than they are in the traditional GT method (Dornyei, 1997). Moreover, the CLT impact has encouraged language teachers to pay more attention to learner-centeredness in language teaching and learning (Brown, 2007; McCombs & Whisler, 1997). The learner-centered curriculum was described as a collaborative effort between teachers and learners (Nunan, 1988). In the learner-centered CLT approach, learners are allowed to express their opinions about language content (Richards, 2006). Learners collaborate with the English teacher to explore topics and are actively involved in the learning process. Because the learner-centered approach views learners as individuals who have rights in the process of deciding the course goal, it is believed their intrinsic motivation can thus be triggered and increased when learners' experiences, talents, needs, and learning styles are appreciated (Dornyei, 1997).

Cooperative Learning, which, as Richards and Rogers (2001) explained, shares many of the characteristics of CLT, promotes learning through communication in pairs or small groups and has been confirmed relatively recently as an effective method of learning (Millis & Rhem, 2010). In the 1990s, CL was one of the most thoroughly researched areas in educational psychology (Johnson, Johnson & Smith, 1995), and was regarded by some as a tool which is adaptable to any teaching/learning situation (Brody & Davidson, 1998). CL is still regarded as a highly effective classroom intervention, superior to most traditional forms of instruction and it is applicable with some confidence at every level (Millis & Rhem, 2010). The cooperative classroom is characterized by positive interdependence of students, as Johnson et al. noted, when one perceives that one is linked with others in a way so that one cannot succeed unless one must coordinate one's and others' efforts to complete a task. It is a type of 'sink or swim' together mentality. This is different from an individualistic classroom where students work independently and the chance of achieving a task is not enhanced by the presence of others. It appears that the CL process generates a specific motivational system that energizes learning (Millis & Rhem, 2010). CL is theoretically one of the most efficient instructional methods from a motivational point of view. It can be seen that there are striking similarities between cooperative group skills emphasized by CL and the second/foreign language functions emphasized by CLT; this is why CL is also able to act as a foundation in Communicative Language curriculum design (Dornyei, 1997).

After reviewing the teaching methods above-mentioned, they can be summarized as the GT method, a traditional teaching method by which language teachers play an important role in the class, explaining vocabulary, grammatical rules and articles in the students' first language; the CLT method, a learner-centered approach in which language teachers help students take up more responsibility on their own to strengthen their communicative competency by using task-based activities, and the CL method, a team work approach in which language teachers encourage their students to seek cooperation with other learners for the completion of a given task or a project together, such as making an advertisement, film-making, or playing games in groups. This study aims to compare and contrast the three model teachers' teaching methods, and to identify the model teachers' common qualities observed from students' perspectives and finally to examine their students' learning outcomes from the course.

III. METHODOLOGY

The present study carefully investigated the views of the teaching methods of the 'most favorable' model teachers and the views of their students as well. The procedures included three model teacher selection, participating students selection and analysis of the English proficiency improvement of participating students. Research tools included student evaluation of teaching (SET), the questionnaire survey, students interviews, teacher interviews, and Michigan English Placement Test (MEPT). First of all, the three model participating teachers were identified from 50~60 teachers in the university. Secondly, the representative, sampled students were randomly selected from the 7 classes the model teachers were teaching. In order to achieve the study goals, information related to the teachers' teaching methods/practices was obtained through students' interviews by audiotape recordings as well as teacher interviews by filming videotapes. Furthermore, the classroom observations were arranged, and analytic memos and contact summaries for each teacher were written. All the tapes were transcribed and then coded. In addition, to examine the effectiveness of each teacher's teaching methods, the MEPT pre-test was administered at the beginning of the second semester and the same test (post-test) was given at the end of the second semester. A paired t-test was used to assess how much progress these students had achieved in the post-test MEPT. The details about the procedures are the same as described in the previous study (Chien, 2014).

A. Student Evaluation of Teaching (SET)

The SET is designed in the form of a Likert scale (1~5), plus open-ended questions designed for students to write comments.

B. The Questionnaire Survey

This questionnaire was sent to the 196 students at the beginning of the second semester. It consisted of 6 questions concerning the respondents' personal assessment of the importance of six language education elements. First, the teachers are *using only English (the target language) in teaching* (Q1), *vocabulary teaching* (Q2), *grammar teaching* (Q3), *essay structure teaching* (Q4), *essay explanation* (Q5), and *classroom learning activities* (Q6). In order to achieve the teaching objectives, teachers who use only English (Q1) tend to adopt the CLT method; those who favor classroom learning activities (Q6) are more likely to use the CLT and CL methods; while those who attend more to students' vocabulary and grammar growth might choose the GT or CLT method to teach vocabulary (Q2), grammar (Q3) and essay structure (Q4). The survey was conducted in the L1 in order to alleviate any confounding L2 comprehension effects.

C. Student Interviews

Six to seven students from each teacher (total of 19 students) participated in the audio-taped one-on-one interview for 30-35 minutes. The interview questions were: *What impresses you most in the course of 'Freshman English'?* *What does the teacher do that helps you learn?* *How do these methods/techniques help you learn?* *What techniques are the teachers actually guiding you to practices from which you are benefiting by enhancing your language skills?* These questions were to prompt the students to recall what and how they had learned in the class. After all the recordings had been transcribed, the transcriptions were independently gone through by the researcher and another experienced teacher, and all the ideas which appeared meaningful or valuable in the recalls were coded. Scoring the transcription involved awarding one point to any positive feedback with its meaning, which directly matched with the category of teaching methods and practices listed in the Tables.

D. Teacher Interviews

Each teacher was interviewed by the end of the second semester and all the interviews were transcribed. The interview questions were: *How do you help your students learn English?* *How do these methods/techniques help them learn?* *Why do these methods/techniques help them learn?* The questions helped reveal not only the weight of using different teaching methods, but also the pedagogical theories that the teachers used. The interviews were filmed in a very relaxing atmosphere.

IV. DATA ANALYSIS AND RESULT DISCUSSION

This section presents the analytic results of the teachers' teaching methods from the datasets collected from the questionnaire surveys, student interviews, teacher interviews, and classroom observations plus the teacher's course syllabus. The results include similarities and differences in teaching views among the three model teachers and among different proficiency levels of students (section 4.1). Also, it determines what common phenomena are observed in the classrooms and from the syllabi (section 4.2), and how the transcription of student interviews is scored (section 4.2). In addition, it displays the results of the students' performance in the MEPT pre-test and in the MEPT post-test (section 4.3).

A. Similarities and Differences in Teaching Views among Three Teachers and Their Students

Figures 1 and 2 summarize and compare the importance levels of English teaching elements from the viewpoints of teachers and their students, respectively, using the questionnaire survey. Figure 1 indicates that the importance levels of all six elements are considered higher than 2, i.e., "somewhat important" at least, by three model teachers. All three teachers agree on the same importance level of *vocabulary teaching* (Q2) for students at different levels of English proficiency. Teacher Chang teaches low level students with an emphasis on *grammar teaching* (Q3) and *structure teaching* (Q4) as blue bars show. Teacher Her teaches intermediate level students with more emphasis on *classroom learning activities* (Q6) and less emphasis on *grammar teaching* (Q3) and *essay explanation* (Q5) as red bars show. Teacher Chen gives equal weight to all the elements except in the area of *using English* (Q1) only for her students with English proficiency at the high-intermediate level as green bars show. This bar figure reveals the different emphases on the teaching elements, which are probably caused by the English proficiency levels of students. The different emphases will reflect upon the syllabi, teaching methods, teaching practices and teaching activities used by the three teachers. A further discussion will be addressed in the following sections.

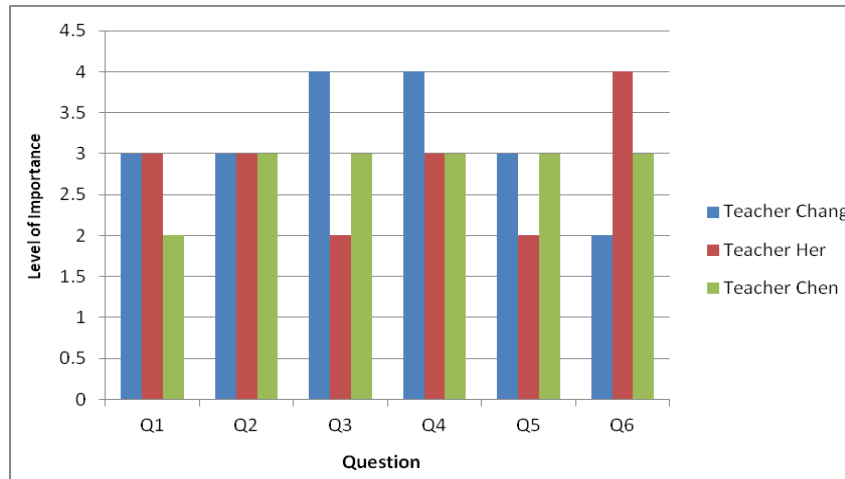


Figure 1. Comparisons of the Levels of Importance for Various Elements in English Teaching Among Three Teachers, Teacher Chen, Teacher Her and Teacher Chang

- Q1. Using English only in Teaching 1= Not Important
- Q2. Vocabulary teaching 2= Somewhat Important
- Q3. Grammar teaching 3= Important
- Q4. Article structure teaching 4= Very Important
- Q5. Essay explanation
- Q6. Classroom learning activities

Compared with Figure 1, Figure 2 shows that the students do not agree with their teachers on the importance levels of different teaching elements. Moreover, the students at different English levels weight the importance levels of six teaching elements (Q1 to Q6) differently, except that all students agree to a similar importance level of *article structure teaching* (Q4) ranging from 54% to 62%. Students at the low English proficiency level weight more on *vocabulary teaching* (Q2) and *using English only in teaching* (Q1), students at the intermediate level weight more on *essay explanation* (Q5) and the least on *vocabulary teaching* (Q2), but students at the high-intermediate level agree with the teacher on the weight of the importance levels for all teaching elements, and more weight on *grammar teaching* (Q3), *essay explanation* (Q5), and *using English only in teaching* (Q6). The observations indicate that more than 74% to 84% of students in the high-intermediate English level desire more training on *grammar teaching* (Q3) as well as *essay explanation* (Q5) and *listening comprehension* (Q1). Approximately 83% of students in the intermediate English level desire more training on *essay explanation* (Q5) but less than 10% of them desire the training on *vocabulary* (less than 10%). For students in the beginning English level, more than 85% of them view *vocabulary teaching* (Q2) as important; while less than 40% view *classroom learning activities* (Q6) as important. Figure 2 also shows that *classroom learning activities* (Q6) receives a relatively low rating by students at all three English levels. The percentages reveal students' viewpoints of teaching elements of English learning. They may reflect what teaching methods are employed by teachers and how they are accepted by students. The teaching methods derived from the teaching elements are the focus of this study.

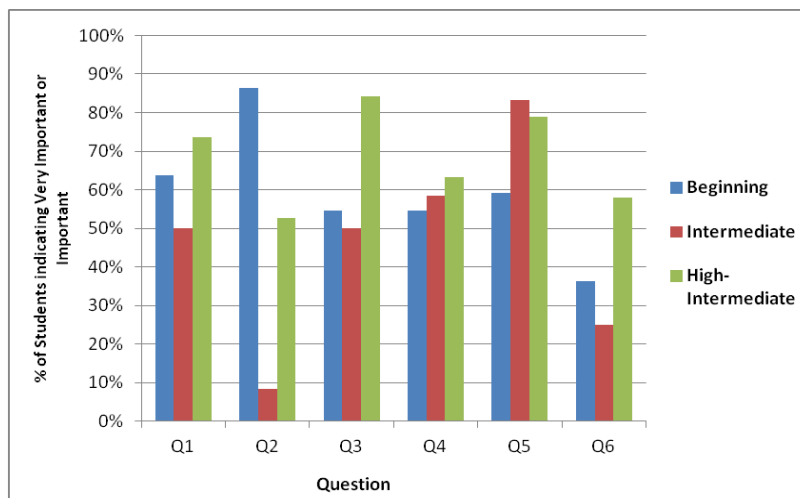


Figure 2. Comparisons of Viewpoints on Importance of Various Items in English Teaching Given by Classes of Different English Levels

B. Results on Identifying Teaching Methods from Course Syllabi, Student Interviews, Teacher Interviews and Classroom Observation

This paper analyzes the teaching methods according to the associated pedagogy from the syllabi, classroom observation, teacher interviews as well as students' recalls on the learning activities and learning practices coded from the interview transcriptions.

Table 1 summarizes the pedagogies correlating with the syllabus contents from the syllabi and categorizes teaching methods from classroom observation of the three model teachers, and teacher interviews. Teacher Chang's syllabus is the simplest among three teachers with an emphasis on the basic skills using all existing methods of GT, CLT, and CL, designed for students at the low English proficiency level. Teacher Her's syllabus targets reading strategies specifically plus attention to diction, vocabulary, and tone by varieties of activities and demands students to pay additional effort, in, before and after classes, mainly using CLT and CL methods, designed for students at the intermediate English proficiency level. Teacher Chen's syllabus is directed toward the enhancement of vocabulary, reading and speaking. She flexibly adopts a combined CL-GT method as well as GT, CLT, CL methods for teaching activities, designed for students at the intermediate-high English proficiency level. This table indicates obviously that extra effort has been made to think out more varieties of teaching methods for students at a higher English proficiency level.

Furthermore, from the teachers' interview, the researcher found that Teacher Chang, Teacher Her, and Teacher Chen spend 70 %, 60%, and 40% of the class time in lecturing, that is, students use up about 30 %, 40%, and 60% of the class time, respectively. It indicates that there has been an increase of time for student participation from the classes of the beginning level to the classes of the intermediate level to the classes of the intermediate-high level; namely, more time is spent on freely using CLT and CL methods for higher English levels of students.

TABLE 1.
TEACHING METHODS OBSERVED AND CATEGORIZED FROM SYLLABI/ TEACHER INTERVIEWS/CLASSROOM OBSERVATIONS

Teacher	Syllabus content	Associated pedagogy and teaching methods
Chang	To develop four basic skills. Students are exposed to authentic, natural English to build understanding and expression.	GT method: teaching grammar, vocabulary, sentence structure; verb tense, subjunctive mood clause in Chinese CLT method: designing learner-centered activities to keep students working by themselves or with others CL method: arranging group discussion and group presentation
Her	To improve reading comprehension and speed; Students are taught to be critical and appreciative readers. Attention to diction, vocabulary, tone and enhancing reading comprehension, and the author's purpose.	CLT method: designing learner-centered activities to encourage students to work by themselves or with others; teaching reading strategies; finding key words, main ideas, ways to guess the meaning of unfamiliar words from the context, etc.; assigning homework a week before, discussing, checking the homework answers in class; playing the tape or films in class so students have a chance to read sentences out loud and to listen to the natives; using English as much as possible in class; asking students to discuss the group presentation content with the teacher via e-mail before they present their group work in class CL approach: arranging group presentation for students to practice talking in English
Chen	To focus on vocabulary and phrase increase; to practice reading strategies, enhance reading comprehension and improve speaking ability.	GT method: increasing vocabulary knowledge and phrase knowledge. CL combined with GT method: using interactive activities, in which both students and the teacher work together responsible for explaining the meaning of the articles. Chinese is allowed during the discussion in class CLT method: giving every student in each group a role to play for their responsibility; i.e., the group leader in the classroom activity, who assigns the responsibility to each member, keeps all students alert, or the time-keeper who watches the time for the discussion; grouping students to participate in the discussion, two students from each group are randomly selected to explain the articles (Chinese is allowed); giving immediate comments right after group presentation in class and more detailed remarks later in the written paper CL method: using task-based or project-based language teaching, e.g., sharing advertisements and analyzing advertising techniques after giving a written instruction and a demo a week before. (Chinese is not allowed for group presentation); arranging group presentation, providing students an opportunity to work together and to express their feelings or opinions in English.

Table 2 displays the most memorable teaching activities and the associated teaching methods from analyzing the scored student interview transcription. Recognized teaching methods are identified thus; t1s3 represents the 3rd student (s3) in Teacher Chang (t1)'s class, t3s3 represents the 3rd student in Teacher Chen's class, and so on. In first column of the table, the teaching methods are associated with the teaching activities in second column. The 3rd column tabulates the specific students who recalled the specific and impressive teaching activity listed in 2nd column in 1st teacher's (Teacher Chang's) class. Column 3 of Table 2 identifies that 1 student credits the practice of Chinese translation (GT method), 5 students credit the interactive activities (CLT method), 7 students credit the group discussion (CL method), 4 students credit the team work for vocabulary and reading enhancement (CL method), and 2 students favor the effort of playing games (CL method) in Teacher Chang's class of 7 students. It indicates that all the 7 students favor the group discussion, next the 5 students are for the interactive activities in Teacher Chang's class at the low English proficiency level. The 4th column indicates that 3 students favor interactive activities, all 6 students favor group discussion, 5 students favor the team work of enhancing vocabulary and reading; and 4 students favor playing games in Teacher Her's class of 6 students at the intermediate English proficiency level. The 5th column stands out for the appreciation of group discussion by all 6 students in Teacher Chen's class of 6 students at high-intermediate English proficiency level.

The number in 6th column indicates all 19 students credit the effort of group discussion; next, the team work of enhancing vocabulary and reading; then, the interactive activity. The summary implies that the CL method is more recognized by students than the CLT method, and the GT, the last, no matter what the English proficiency level of students is. This table also shows that more activities associated with the CL method were used by three model teachers.

TABLE 2.
RECOGNIZED TEACHING METHODS IDENTIFIED FROM STUDENT INTERVIEW TRANSCRIPTION SCORING

Teaching Method	Teaching Activities	Teacher Chang (Teacher 1: t1)	Teacher Her (Teacher 2: t2)	Teacher Chen (Teacher 3: t3)	Total Count
GT method	Translation into Chinese	1 t1s3	0	1 t3s3	2
CLT method:	Interactive activities	5 t1s2, t1s3, t1s4, t1s6, t1s7	3 t2s2, t2s4, t2s5	2 t3s1, t3s5	10
CL method:	Task-based approach: Collaborative work through group discussion	7 t1s1, t1s2, t1s3, t1s4, t1s5, t1s6, t1s7	6 t2s1, t2s2, t2s3, t2s4, t2s5, t2s6	6 t3s1, t3s2, t3s3, t3s4, t3s5, t3s6	19
CL method:	Activities by team work. Students are challenged to increase vocabulary or advance reading comprehension	4 t1s1, t1s5, t1s6, t1s7	5 t2s1, t2s2, t2s3, t2s4, t2s6	2 t3s4, t3s5	11
CL method:	Playing games by individuals or in groups	2 t1s5, t1s6	4 t2s3, t2s4, t2s5, t2s6	3 t3s3, t3s4, t3s5	9
Total counts		19	18	14	51

Remark: All the students expressed that they benefited from group discussion, which motivated them to learn more.

As for the teaching practices, the participating students were interviewed about whether their English skills had been practiced in class and whether their skills had been improved through the course. Table 3 reports the number of the times about certain specific skills were exercised by the students and they felt that they were making a breakthrough in using the skills. Thus, the counts in the table reveal the appreciation of major teaching practices. The record shows that 39 times for vocabulary, 20 times for reading comprehension, 19 times for listening comprehension, 17 times for grammatical knowledge and 20 times for cooperative learning, students felt they were being benefited from the practices. These results are in accordance with the previous findings related to the CLT or CL approach on EFL college learners (i.e., Johnson et al., 1995; Wei, 1996; Chen, 2001; Magno & Sembrano, 2007; Wang, 2007; Khandelwal, 2009; Strong, Gargani, & Hacifazlioglu, 2011).

In addition, the larger the numbers in each item, the more the students are satisfied with the learning in practice. For example, it is reported 39 times that they learned the strategies to enlarge their vocabulary. Out of the 19 interviewees, 12 reported that their listening ability was enhanced; 15 out of 19 indicated that their reading ability was advanced and 10 out of 19 claimed that they had better understanding of the grammar. It also shows that all the 19 participating students learned communication skills by getting involved more actively in group work. Comparatively, they spent more time just sitting and listening in high school English class, but they reported speaking more during class time in college. They enjoyed seeing the work of other groups when they were doing presentations. The English class turned some of their attention from paperwork to more communicative activities, which made the class time more enjoyable and absorbing. It is interestingly noted that major practices using the GT method, the CLT method, and the CL methods are equally effective and appreciated for all English proficiency levels of students, and help in vocabulary increase is the most cited practice.

TABLE 3.
TEACHING PRACTICES IDENTIFIED FROM STUDENT INTERVIEW TRANSCRIPTION SCORING

	Teaching Practices	Teacher Chang (Teacher 1: t1)	Teacher Her (Teacher 2: t2)	Teacher Chen (Teacher 3: t3)	Total Count
GT Method or CLT Method	Help with students' knowledge in vocabulary increase in all ways (prefix, word root, suffix)	12 (t1s1, t1s7, t1s5, t1s7: increase voc by outside readers); (t1s1, t1s6, t1s7: teach more words in addition to the voc in the articles); (t1s7: guessing words from the context); (t1s7: memorize words by synonyms); (t1s5, t1s7: memorize voc from the context); (t1s6: listen more, read more and speak more)	15 (t2s3, t2s4, t2s5, t2s6: word roots; t2s1, t2s2, t2s3, t2s5, t2s6: listen more, read more and speak more; (t2s1, t2s2, t2s3, t2s4, t2s5, t2s6 increased)	12 (t3s1, t3s2, t3s3, t3s4, t3s5, t3s1: word studies on puns); (t3s1, t3s3: open mouth to read or to speak); (t3s3: listen more, read more and speak more) (t3s1, t3s5, t3s6 increased)	39
GT Method or CLT Method	Help with students' grammatical knowledge	5 t1s5, t1s6, t1s7 (improved) T1s4, t1s5	3 t2s3, t2s6 (improved)	9 t3s1, t3s2, t3s5, t3s6 (improve) t3s1, t3s2, t3s3, t3s4, t3s5	17
GT Method or CLT Method	Enhance students' knowledge with reading comprehension (finding the theme, main ideas, topic sentences, etc.)	7 t1s5, t1s7 (t1s2, t1s3, t1s5, t1s6, t1s7 enhanced)	8 t2s2, t2s6 (t2s1, t2s2, t2s3, t2s4, t2s5, t2s6 enhanced)	5 t3s4 (t3s1, t3s4, t3s5, t3s6 enhanced)	20
Counts for GT or CLT Methods		24	26	26	76
CLT Method	Enhance their listening via Film watching	7 t1s1, t1s2, t1s3, t1s4, t1s5, t1s6, t1s7	6 t2s1, t2s2, t2s3, t2s4, t2s5, t2s6	6 t3s1, t3s2, t3s3, t3s4, t3s5, t3s6	19
	Assign outside class readers	4 t1s1, t1s5, t1s6, t1s7	5 t2s1, t2s2, t2s3, t2s4, t2s6	2 t3s4, t3s5	11
CLT Method	Welcome students to ask questions via e-mail			1 (t3s1: welcome to ask question by e-mail to teacher)	1
	Playing games (i.e. jigsaw, by individuals or in groups)	2 t1s5, t1s6	4 t2s3, t2s4, t2s5, t2s6	3 t3s3, t3s4, t3s5	9
Counts for CLT method		13	15	12	40
CL Method	collaborative work through group discussion and group presentation	8 t1s1, t1s2, t1s3, t1s4, t1s5, t1s6, t1s7 (t1s6)	6 t2s1, t2s2, t2s3, t2s4, t2s5, t2s6	6 t3s1, t3s2, t3s3, t3s4, t3s5, t3s6	20
Total counts for all methods		45	47	44	136

Table 4 displays the allotted time the three teachers used for the combined method of GT, CLT and CL methods. Teacher Chang adopted 60% of the time on the GT, 10% on CLT and 30% on CL; Teacher Her spent 50% of the time on CLT and 50% on CL and Teacher Chen used 30% of the time on the GT, 30% on CLT and 40% on CL. Therefore, the results indicated that a successful teaching could not be attributed to a single superior method; the cooperative learning techniques of CLT and CL methods combined with the GT traditional teaching instruction worked effectively for the EFL university students.

TABLE 4:
THE PERCENTAGE OF CLASS TIME ON TEACHING METHODS FROM TEACHER INTERVIEW AND CLASSROOM OBSERVATION

		Teacher Chang	Teacher Her	Teacher Chen
The GT method	Q2: Teaching vocabulary	✓(20%)		✓(10%)
	Q3: Teaching grammar	✓(30%)		✓(10%)
	Q4: Essay structure	✓(10%)		✓(10%)
CLT	Q2: Teaching vocabulary		✓(20%)	
	Q3: Teaching grammar			
	Q4: Essay structure		✓(10%)	
	Q6: Interaction between teacher and students (feedback in class or on homework)	✓(10%)	✓(20%)	✓(30%)
CL	Q6: Group discussion	Mostly prepared and done outside the class		
	Group presentation	✓(10%)	✓(20%)	✓(20%)
	Q6: Interaction among students	✓(10%)	✓(10%)	✓(10%)
	Q6: Playing games	✓(10%)	✓(20%)	✓(10%)

C. Students' Learning Achievement Based on Their Performance in the MEPT Post-test

As cited in Chien, 2014, the paired t-tests found that students of all three teachers had made statistically significant improvement in overall performance over the four months of work in the second semester. Specifically, students taught by Teacher Chang showed significant improvement in reading; students taught by Teacher Her showed significant improvement in listening, grammar, and vocabulary; students taught by Teacher Chen showed significant improvement in listening and vocabulary. These results are comforting, considering each class involved in this study met only for two hours, once per week.

V. CONCLUSION

Although plenty of studies assert the effectiveness of specific teaching methods and practices, there is a lack of research examining the effectiveness from EFL learners' perceptions of their own learning experiences of the teaching methods in the existing theories on second/foreign language acquisition, especially within the EFL environments. The students' perceptions provide teachers rich information for understanding their students' cognition and classroom processes (Knight & Waxman, 1991). The students' perceptions also enable researchers and teachers to understand students' thought processes (Tuan, Chang, Wang, & Treagust, 2000). Learning tends to take place when students feel like entrusting themselves to their teacher's teaching, and are willing to try and to participate actively in learning activities which are new and challenging to them.

In the present study three model teachers were consistently highly judged by the students' evaluation reports for years and the improvements of students' English are significant, the proficiency being substantiated by the MEPT tests. The adopted teaching methods with practices are analyzed, compared and identified based on their syllabi, questionnaire surveys, student interviews with sampled students and teachers; and classroom observations. The analysis results show that the teaching methods make use of cooperative learning techniques in CLT and CL methods, even though two of the teachers in this study still adopted the GT traditional teaching method, but it was mainly students' doing the Chinese and English translation rather than teachers' using a traditional lecture-style. All of the three teachers successfully created an atmosphere unlike the traditional teaching environment, in which students need to take more responsibility for their learning. To sum up, all of the teaching methods discussed above contributed to creating an environment that had a certain novelty to it which inspired students and kept up the levels of interest and participation.

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Independent Study Logs: Guiding and Encouraging Students in the Process of Language Learning

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Abstract—Many people in Spain are studying English in order to find jobs in this country or to migrate as a result of the economic crisis. Language classes, however, are limited in duration and are often not enough to enable students to progress as much as they would like to. Language learners have to spend a considerable amount of time out of class studying and using English in order to get the most out of their class and to continue learning when classes are not in session. This article explains the use of independent study logs to guide and encourage learners in their language learning process during the period in which they attend class with a view towards their becoming more autonomous afterwards. The learners record the activities they do outside the classroom to learn and practice English along with any reactions they have in doing so and, in this way, the instructor can provide weekly or bimonthly feedback on their language learning strategies so that the experience can be more positive and more productive. This paper discusses the process followed along with student and instructor reactions to it, many of which are positive, as well as further applications for the use of independent study logs.

Index Terms—diary studies, learner autonomy, EFL, motivation, learning strategies

I. INTRODUCTION

Knowledge of English is now more important than ever in Spain due to the economic situation. Many young people are leaving the country to find work and others need it to obtain jobs within the country. As a result, many people are studying English and need to devote a number of years to acquiring a high level in the language. Language classes, however, are limited in duration and are often not enough to enable students to progress as much as they would like to. Language learners have to spend considerable time out of class studying and using English in order to get the most out of their classes, and there are down times when classes are not in session. This idea follows the thinking of Gabrielson (1990), who stated that “within the 600 to 700 hours of teaching that we have in school what we can hope to do is get them started” (p. 4). Some students seem to have a natural ability to know what they need but others require more guidance as is reflected in the literature on learner autonomy and different teaching approaches (Smith, 2003, p. 140ff; 2008, p. 396). Even those students who feel they know what they are doing often appreciate tips and encouragement from time to time. The guidance, tips and encouragement gained while taking a course in a classroom situation can help students in their independent study after class and during periods when classes are not in session.

This paper explains a method used to monitor students’ work with English outside class with a view towards guiding and encouraging them in their autonomy for learning the language. It involves the students’ writing logs with information on their independent study of English. Some background information on diary studies will first be presented. This information will be followed by a description of the classes in which this method has been used and an explanation of the actual procedure adopted, along with information on reactions encountered and some suggestions for further applications of the method to other learning situations.

II. MAIN BODY

A. *Diary Studies*

Diary studies related to the learning of second or foreign languages have been described in a number of articles since the 1990s. Some studies are done by the researcher as a language learner, while others are done by language learners for a separate person acting as the researcher (see Curtis & Bailey, 2009, for a list of both types of studies). In writing language learning diaries, learners write information and reflections on different aspects of their learning, such as their reactions to a class and the methodology used (Ruso, 2007; Christensen, Lindum, Orten, Rigbolt & Vera-Batista, 1990; Dam & Thomson, 1990), what activities they have done to learn English outside class (Halbach, 2000; Hyland, 2004), or other aspects of the learning experience related to a specific university course (Huang, 2005; Debreli, 2011). In terms of the actual content, Bailey & Ochsner (1983) indicate in their review of diary studies that diarists should describe their language learning experience and “systematically record events, details, and feelings” (p. 189). Numerous studies follow this guideline but they often add their own twist to the data that should be recorded depending on their objectives.

For instance, Hyland (2004) adds the idea of including “exposure to English” in addition to “use” of the language in a study on learner autonomy (p. 185), while Halbach (2000) focuses on the recording of problems and how they are followed up in an attempt at having students learn to solve their own language-learning difficulties (p. 87).

Studies involving diaries often involve writing prose entries in a journal for a period of a full semester or full year of study as part of a university course (for example, Debreli, 2011, p. 62; Ruso, 2007), but the period can be as short as one week (Hyland, 2004, p. 185). Mention is made of a requirement that entries should be “at least one page” (Hyland, 2004, p. 185), or students are assigned exercises that require a fair amount of writing, such as “recording their conceptualization of EFL reading processes and their reflections on other aspects of EFL learning (e.g. listening, speaking, writing, grammar and vocabulary learning)” (Huang, 2005, p. 611). Because diaries are not specifically used as a language-learning activity but are instead intended to obtain information, most authors show no preference for the language in which they are written, be it the students’ native language or English (for example, Rubin, 2003, p. 12; Matsumoto, 1987, p. 20; Curtis & Bailey, 2009, p. 72). In fact, diary studies have been conducted successfully with English language learners in a variety of countries including Hong Kong (Hyland, 2004), China (Huang, 2005) and Turkey (Debreli, 2011). As will be seen below, the present study involves shorter entries for an intermediate length of time but the contents are similar to the above studies.

B. Classes and Procedure

Use of logs for this study started as part of a month-long intensive training course at the A2 level of the CEFR (Language Policy Unit) for secondary school teachers who must demonstrate a C1 level of English in order to qualify to teach their areas of specialization (not English) in a bilingual program in the Madrid region of Spain. The teachers attended the course for four hours per day for five days a week during the month of July (80 hours), and they were expected to do an average of two hours of homework per day throughout the month (20 hours). Many of them had not studied English for a number of years and they felt insecure about their ability to achieve the longer-term objective. In addition, they felt a threat of being moved to a different high school after numerous years at their current place of work if they did not reach the objective by the time their school applied for bilingual status.

In order to assist these teachers in their language learning process during the course and in preparation for a longer period of study with or without formal classroom instruction, some ideas about second language acquisition and the learning of a foreign language were explained to the group. Specifically, the importance of balancing study of grammar, vocabulary and pronunciation rules along with actual use of the language through reading, writing, listening and speaking was stressed. The instructor also devised a system for the teachers to record their work outside class in order to be able to advise them throughout the month. To do so, the teachers received a worksheet with a full-page chart for logging information on a number of factors: the date, the time their study started and the time it finished, the activities done with English, and their reaction to the work done (see Table 1 below). An emphasis was placed on brevity in their logs as opposed to lengthy prose diary entries, as noted above, in order to save them time and to enable them to concentrate on their homework. They were not instructed as to which language they should use, but all of them opted for English in order to practice the language. Any contact with English including watching TV in the target language, reading books, conversing with another person in the language or doing exercises from the book or other activities with the language could be recorded in the logs.

TABLE 1
SAMPLE LOG ENTRY PROVIDED TO STUDENTS AS PART OF THEIR INSTRUCTIONS

Date	Start time, finish time	Activities	My reaction
July 1	5.00-5.45	Looked at the book, read lesson 1A and 1B, did workbook 1A and 1B, bought a notebook and wrote in my journal	I am happy to be studying English. I understand lesson 1A but lesson 1B is difficult for me.

The procedure for completing the logs was explained on the first day of class and the teachers were instructed to fill them in each day during the week after studying. The information was collected each Friday during the month and returned to them with written feedback the following Monday so that they could continue working in the same way for the next week.

The teachers’ informal responses to the log activity at the end of the month were overwhelmingly positive because, they claimed, they had felt guided and encouraged by the instructor on how to proceed in studying. Thanks to this positive response, the log activity has been continued with other groups of students who need to achieve a high level of English for work reasons. Two groups in particular were primary school teacher trainees at a local university with levels ranging from A2 to B2 on the CEFR and translator trainees at the same university whose levels ranged from A2 to C1. In all of these cases the same procedure was followed, except that the format of the activity was less fixed. The students were not given a chart to fill in but were instead shown an example that they could follow similar to the above table. In these two classes the logs were collected every two weeks during a period of 8 weeks. Many of the teacher trainees opted to use English to fill in their logs but a few of them preferred to use Spanish. The translator trainees, however, all used English to do them. At present logs are being used by another two groups of C1.1 level students at a private language school for adults. In this case the format is completely free and the students do them on a voluntary basis,

submitting them every two weeks as long as they are interested in continuing the activity. They are writing the logs in English out of their own choice.

When revising the logs, the instructor looks at a number of aspects. The first is how often and how long the students study as they are encouraged to attempt frequent albeit shorter periods of contact with the language as opposed to longer, intense study sessions only once or twice per week. Students who work only one day a week for several hours receive written feedback encouraging them to try to seek out 2-3 days, if not 4 days, but a shorter amount of time. The time that the students study English is also very revealing as it sometimes becomes clear that their family, study and/or work obligations mean that they can only study late at night, an additional constraint on their learning. The next aspect examined in the logs is the different activities that they do to make progress with the language. It is here that it is seen if they are balancing traditional-type study of the building blocks of the language along with practice in using the language. When they focus too much on one area or another and depending on their ability and personality in the classroom, they receive written advice from the instructor in their logs in order to help them find ways to reinforce the aspect of learning that needs to be improved. For example, one of the teacher trainees who watched basketball games in English frequently but who never practiced reading was encouraged to look for newspaper articles about the matches that he had seen on TV. Another student at the C1.1 level who was having difficulty in general with the course and was practicing conversation with a private tutor was encouraged to examine the method used: "Does your tutor correct certain mistakes? Or is there no pattern? If he/she can focus on S+V+O word order and verb tenses (or another typical mistake) it may help you focus more." This student had a particular problem in these areas but was unable to complete the course in the end.

The last part of the log observed is actually the most important: the reaction of the students to what they are doing. By observing the students' logs over time, patterns of enthusiasm, optimism, frustration and negativity appear. If students seem positive, this attitude is reinforced as much as possible through written feedback, such as "I am happy that you feel this way," or "excellent." In the cases in which they appear to be frustrated or negative regarding their learning, the instructor attempts to encourage them to study in other ways to prevent boredom or frustration and to find ways that could be more rewarding. A typical comment might be "This is normal. Don't worry. Give yourself time." Others are "Try to concentrate on what you understand at this point," or "Be patient with yourself." The students find that these individual comments are helpful and are encouraged, especially in the context of a fast classroom routine with little time for individualized attention in person. Nevertheless, the logs are also used to suggest that students talk to the instructor.

C. Reactions Encountered

A number of difficulties related to the students' working with logs have been observed on the various occasions in which they have been used. A first one is, obviously, that learners can invent the information, particularly when they are in a university setting and are doing the log as part of their mark; no measures have been taken to attempt to verify the information, but the students themselves have recognized this possibility, as evidenced in a teacher trainee comment in a post-activity survey: "I think that in many cases people invent the things but didn't do them" (author translation from Spanish). Another problem is that students forget to write down their activities on a daily basis and, hence, are forced to fill them in the day that they are submitted to the instructor; the nature of the log activity requires a certain degree of discipline on the part of learners, as inferred by one of them: "Bearing in mind that I am not organized, keeping the log was tedious as well as boring. I don't like to have to pay attention all the time to how long it takes me to do something." As a result, the logs are often hastily done and the information is quite possibly less accurate than if they were to record it immediately after doing it. Again, this is evidenced in the students' post-activity surveys: "Sometimes I found it boring because I don't write the things that I do in the same day and I've to do it all in the same day." The solution in these cases is to reinforce the utility of the log exercise and the need for accurate information.

The remaining difficulties encountered are related to the actual filling in of the forms. For example, the students sometimes fill in only a small amount of information about their activities, such as "homework" or "I do the exercises." If they simply report that they have studied from the book, but it cannot be determined what kind of work has been done or what aspect of English it is related to, some individual in-person consultation can clarify the situation so that feedback can be provided. Another common difficulty found is that learners often leave the part of their reaction out of the log the first times that it is submitted. They appear to be confused about the nature of this section and the original examples provided do not appear to be enough. A next stage observed in their filling out this section is that they report facts such as how many questions they have done correctly out of the possible total, as in "15 out of 20 correct," or "We were speaking about all kinds of relationships between English and Spanish families." While these comments are interesting and valuable, the learners are encouraged to move to a more affective view of their work. After reinforcing the idea of this part of the log in their initial feedback and through group feedback during the class, students tend to understand the idea requested of them and start providing the information sought, for example, "I think I am learning what I learned in a bad way in the past" or "I'm happy because I understand the different futures."

Two final difficulties related to the way in which the learners fill out the logs have to do with the nature of the exercise in general. Some students show resistance to doing the logs due to time constraints. As the students had a particularly heavy workload during the semester in which they were completing the logs, some of them did not want to take the time to fill them in every day as evidenced by one person: "I don't have time to do exercises like this because

the other subjects need a lot of time too, so in that way, writing the log at the end of the day is boring for me.” A final problem is that sometimes students do not see the rationale for doing them. In the case of some of the translation students, they felt there was no need for them as they already knew how to learn English: “In my case doing the log has not been very useful, because I already know what I do to improve my English level. I don’t need a paper to know that.” A clear explanation of the purpose of the logs at the start of the activity can help mitigate some of this resistance; doing the logs on a voluntary basis may also help.

A last potential problem concerns the teacher or instructor who collects the logs from the learners and provides feedback. Obviously, this process takes time. An average of thirty to forty minutes is required to read and provide feedback for a group of 25-30 students on a bimonthly basis. This investment in time has repeatedly proved to be worth the effort in light of the number of students’ informal positive responses and the increased rapport observed in classes that do logs compared to classes that do not.

In fact, learners tend to be more positive in post-activity surveys than negative about the logs, despite the problems reported above (Litzler, unpublished). They directly and/or indirectly describe the logs as being a motivating factor in their studies when asked to report on them. Some of the aspects of motivation mentioned include their being able to see more clearly their own effort and realizing how much they have done to make progress, appreciation for the individualized feedback provided by the instructor, and their feeling that they need to make a greater effort in the class. The novelty of the exercise was also highlighted by many of the students. They had been studying English for many years in primary and secondary school before attending university but had never been asked to report on what they had done outside class, nor had they been encouraged to look for alternative ways to practice use of the language. Many students also highlighted the fact that the logs also helped them organize their work, as evidenced in such survey comments as: “Using the log I can organize the work I do with English, what I am doing from week to week, what is more difficult, what I have learned and, above all, what I have improved so I think it has been a great idea” (author translation from Spanish). Finally, in an open question, C1.1 level students who did logs on a voluntary basis one time only described the logs as “useful” for a variety of reasons.

D. Further Applications

As mentioned above, the logs described in this study have been used with secondary school teachers and university students. In all of these cases the logs were completed with a view towards the instructor’s providing feedback on the students’ organization of time and their activities to learn and improve their English level. The logs were filled out on a daily basis and submitted to the instructor every week or every two weeks for a maximum of 8 weeks as part of their course requirements. In recent months they have also been recommended to C1.1 level students attending English classes at a private language school on a voluntary basis. Nevertheless, the use of logs can be applied to other situations. Obviously, they can be used for longer or shorter periods of time, they can be filled out less often, and they can be collected more or less frequently, depending on the students’ needs and the teacher’s availability. However, they can also have other applications, such as the tracking of students’ use of multiple intelligences, monitoring of their use of new technologies in independent-study, or even encouragement of positive affective conditions to favor autonomous learning. The fact that diary studies have been successful in other countries such as Hong Kong (Hyland, 2004), China (Huang, 2005) and Turkey (Debreli, 2011) means that their positive application beyond Spain is feasible too. These are just a few ideas of many other possibilities depending on the class characteristics and teachers’ individual focuses. The format, initial student orientation, and type of teacher feedback provided can be adapted to the needs and focus of the class and culture in question.

III. CONCLUSION

This experience with using independent study logs to guide and encourage secondary school teachers and university students in their learning of English outside an English class has varied from other studies using diaries in that it required brief entries for an intermediate period of time (8 weeks), as opposed to longer prose entries for an entire semester of study. Nevertheless, the contents of the logs tended to follow that of other successful studies reported for different experiences in other countries and required recording of each date, time of study, the activities done each time and any reactions to the activities. Overall, the experience has proved to be positive for both the instructor and the learners involved as the activity appears to help the students. The learners tended to appreciate the instructor’s individual written feedback about their selection of activities for study and they also found that doing the log helped them in other ways such as organizing their time and seeing the effort they were putting in to learning the language. Use of the logs also seems to generate a higher level of rapport for everyone involved. On the occasions that some students were resistant, it can be deduced that the rationale behind the activity needs to be better explained.

Future work with logs can focus more specifically on their use on a voluntary basis at different levels. It can also examine their applicability to monitoring different factors of language learning such as development of multiple intelligences, use of new technologies for language learning, and positive affective conditions for autonomous learning.

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Teaching English to Saudi Police Cadets: An Evaluation Study

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Abstract—This study evaluated the teaching of English to Saudi police cadets at King Fahd Security College in Riyadh, Saudi Arabia. The participants included three groups of stakeholders: six English teachers, sixteen former police cadets and 122 current police cadets. Data collection instruments included a set of three short questionnaires and observation. The analysis of the results showed that the ESP course and teaching at KFSC is ineffective and inappropriate due to administrative and methodological factors. The current ESP course lacks the major principles associated with the teaching of English for specific purposes such as meeting the police cadets' actual needs and turning these needs into operational objectives that can be tested. Administratively, the three groups of stakeholders expressed their dissatisfaction with the course duration and timing. The study concludes with some important pedagogical implications for the improvement of the ESP course and teaching at KFSC.

Index Terms—ESP, evaluation, King Fahd Security College, police cadets

I. INTRODUCTION

Today, the need for English as a foreign language has brought about a significant adjustment in the requirements of many educational systems, including police education. Thus, evaluation plays an important role in language education in general and ESP in particular since it answers various questions related to the feasibility and quality of English teaching courses and programs in terms of achieving the learning objectives and bringing about the intended outcome. However, despite the fact that evaluation is an indispensable tool in language education, it is still an overlooked area in both language teaching and research, especially in military and police contexts. Therefore, this study attempted to evaluate the ESP course used to teach English to police cadets at King Fahd Security College (hereafter KFSC).

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

A. Definition and Types of Evaluation

Evaluation in language education has been defined in a variety of ways. For example, Richards *et al.* (1985, p. 130) defined it as "the systematic gathering of information for purposes of making decisions." Similarly, Lynch (1996, p.2) defined evaluation as "the systematic attempt to gather information in order to make judgments or decisions." These two definitions are too broad since they made no direct reference to evaluation as both a process and a product. Moreover, both definitions could be equally used to define needs analysis, where the difference between the two "may be more of focus than of the actual activities involved" (Brown, 1989, p. 223). Since these two definitions were too broad, other researchers provided definitions of evaluation to include more information of it as a process and a product. For instance, Brown (1989, p. 223) defined it as "the systematic collection and analysis of all relevant information necessary to promote the improvement of a curriculum, and assess its effectiveness and efficiency, as well as the participants' attitudes within a context of particular institutions involved." This definition shows that evaluation is not only a systematic collection of information, but also a systematic analysis and assessment of these information with the aim to improve the efficiency of a curriculum in the light of the concerned parties within a particular institution. In the same manner, Patton (1997, p.23) defined evaluation as "the systematic collection of information about the activities, characteristics, and outcomes of programs to make judgments about the program, improve program effectiveness, and/or inform decisions about future programming."

With regard to types of evaluation, there are two types commonly used in language education: formative and summative (Richards, 2001). The former is carried out while the course is ongoing and the results of it can be used to amend what is wrong with the course. The information collected in a formative evaluation guides the teacher's decisions as the course continues. In contrast, the latter is administered and completed when the course ends and the instructor or evaluator collects information about the learners' achievements and the effectiveness of the course. A summative evaluation helps stakeholders, including administrators and teachers, to view the progress of the program and provides an opportunity for the evaluators to view the program as a whole, and base their decisions to continue or discontinue the program on solid information.

B. Evaluation Framework in ESP

ESP is an approach that has grown to become an important branch of English language teaching since the 1960s. Unlike English for general purposes, ESP views its learners as adult learners who are fully aware that they are learning the target language for utilitarian purposes (Robinson, 1991); and therefore, there is a need for assessing their achievement in both language skills and their area of the study; thus, ESP courses are mainly designed to help learners perform particular communicative tasks related to a particular setting (e.g., business, police, aviation, etc). Hence evaluation becomes one of the major aspects in ESP.

In an early study on the role of evaluation in ESP, Batchman (1981) drew an important distinction between two levels of evaluation: micro-evaluation and macro-evaluation. In the former, decisions are made regarding individuals in the ESP program, including the students, teachers and administrators. Students are assessed in terms of their readiness for the ESP program and the acceptability of their achievement to teachers, administrators, peers and prospective employers. In the latter, decisions are made to determine the effectiveness and acceptability of the ESP program as a whole. Batchman emphasized that the two levels are not necessarily independent of each other.

Despite that their evaluation framework is "somewhat dated" (Tsou & Chen, 2014, p. 39), Hutchinson and Waters' (1987) developed a useful ESP program evaluation consisting of two levels: learner assessment and course evaluation. Their evaluation model is similar to Batchman's (1981) model. They argued that learner assessment is of a greater importance in ESP because it is concerned with the ability of the learner to perform particular communicative tasks in certain situations, which can be measured through using various tests such as placement tests, achievement tests and proficiency test. As its name shows, course evaluation is mainly concerned with whether an ESP course is doing what it is designed to do. It shows that the involved stakeholders' views (i.e. teachers, learners, sponsors, etc.) are very important in the evaluation process of an ESP program.

More recently, Tsou and Chen (2014) proposed an ESP evaluation framework that looks beyond learner assessment and course evaluation. Their proposed framework consists of at least three components: course evaluation, learner assessment and teacher participation and empowerment. Tsou and Chen adopted the first two parts from Hutchinson and Waters' model and the third part from the foreign language (FL) program evaluation model developed by Watanabe et al. (as cited in Tsou and Chen, 2014). Unlike these two models, Tsou and Chen's model emphasizes gaining insights into certain aspects of an ESP program that have not been mentioned in previous models of ESP program evaluation such as materials authenticity, learner autonomy, and learning transfer. Like the FL program evaluation model, Tsou and Chen stressed the importance of beginning the evaluation process by identifying the stakeholders' needs and goals. Examples of the stakeholders of an ESP program include sponsors, course developers, instructors and students. The outcomes of the evaluation framework assist stakeholders to determine the effectiveness of an ESP program and to identify the adjustment or improvement of the course design and instruction. However, it is the teacher participation and empowerment component that makes Tsou and Chen's model a powerful one. This component can be accessed through utilizing teacher surveys and interviews. It can help obtain feedback from teachers about whether the organization provides supportive and independent climate, whether teachers are aware of the aim of the ESP program, whether teachers have a say on how the program was run and how they are being evaluated, and finally whether teachers and program administrators have regular meetings to discuss and negotiate any difference. As Tsou and Chen admitted, this evaluation framework suffers from some limitations. The most important of all is the difficulty to implement all these components at once. Therefore, they suggested prioritizing the components, either by importance or by how easy is it to measure the results.

C. Studies Related to Evaluation in ESP

The majority of ESP studies focused on learners' needs analysis in various ESP contexts such as engineering (e.g., Hossain, 2013), police (e.g., Qaddomi, 2013) and medicine (e.g., Hwang & Lin, 2010) and textbooks evaluation (e.g., El-Sakran, 2012; Ghalandari & Talebinejad, 2012; Sarem et al., 2013). In contrast, there are few and scattered evaluation studies regarding the stakeholders' views of ESP programs such as teachers, former students, administrators, etc. Some of these studies are briefly reviewed below.

Munisamy (1997) conducted a formative evaluation of the syllabus for English for commercial purposes at a Malaysian university to determine its effectiveness. The participants were English teachers, subject teachers, final year commerce students and former students. The results showed some weaknesses in the ESP program and its implementation. For example, there was no connection between the skills taught in the classroom and certain job skills. He concluded that these weaknesses should be treated, so that the ESP program can be more effective in achieving its objectives.

In another study, Kuppan (2008) evaluated whether the hospitality management course at a Malaysian university is consistent with the English needs of the students in terms of course objectives, course content, teaching and learning materials, teaching methodology, time allocation and evaluation system. The participants were four teachers and sixty students. The researcher used three different sets of questionnaires and interviews. The findings showed some weaknesses in the course in terms of course content, usage of materials and teaching methodology. There was also a gap between the skills taught in the course and hospitality management skills. Kuppan concluded that there is a need to revise some aspects of the course based on both the current needs of the students and the hospitality industry.

Thompson (2011) evaluated an English course for tourism program at a Thai university. The participants were fifteen students, two university officials, and the instructor of the course. He collected data through a questionnaire, interviews,

a teacher's log, and learning materials. The results showed that the learners responded positively to in-class listening and speaking tasks that they felt manageable and relevant to their future jobs. However, there were negative responses towards textbook and outside readings. The learners viewed them as unimportant to their goals. In addition, the two officials and the instructor viewed the program as a vital part of the curriculum, but felt that the learners' backgrounds were hindering the overall program development.

Barnawi (2011) examined the usefulness of formative evaluation in providing data for the Arabian Industrial College ESP program. He focused on the perspectives of three groups of stakeholders: ESP teachers, students and former students. He collected data through a survey, semi-structured interviews and program-related document analysis. The results indicated that using a formative approach to evaluate an ESP program would not only help educators identify strengths of their language programs and reinforce those strengths, but would also help them examine practices and policies.

Finally, in a more recent study, Sarudin et al. (2013) investigated the stakeholders' perceptions of the strengths and weaknesses of an ESP course for students of economics and management science at a Malaysian university. A total of 177 participants (undergraduate students, instructors and administrators) took part in the study. The instruments included questionnaires and semi-structured interviews. The findings showed that the three groups of participants were in general satisfied with the ESP course. However, there were some shortcomings in the ESP course that need to be adjusted such as methods of teaching and oral and written communication skills related to job application.

D. Conclusion

As seen above, a few evaluation studies have been conducted within the framework of ESP. None of these studies has been carried out within the context of police, which makes conducting this study a very important project. The few police studies conducted so far have focused on identifying the English languages of police cadets or officers (e.g., Alhuqbani, 2008; 2014; Qaddomi, 2013) or on police officers' motivation and attitudes toward learning English (e.g., Alhuqbani, 2009; Alqurashi, 2011). Therefore this study attempts to bridge this gap in the literature by evaluating the stakeholders' perceptions of the ESP course and teaching at KFSC.

III. RESEARCH PROBLEM

English has been taught to Saudi police cadets at KFSC since the 1960s which shows the early awareness of the importance of teaching English to police cadets in Saudi Arabia (Alhuqbani, 2014). In the last two decades, the teaching of English at KFSC has gone through three phases. According to Aldossari (1999), English was taught intensively to the cadets in the 1990s. They had six hours of English instructions per week and for three uninterrupted years. The cadets were taught a series of three textbooks titled *Special English Course for Police Cadets* developed by instructors in the English Department. Aldossari (1999) described English teaching in this phase as lacking important factors that should be available in a successful ESP course such as basing the course content on the cadets' actual English needs, defining learning objectives and including authentic materials. In the second phase 2000-2008, the amount of English instruction was sharply reduced to just two hours per week and for one semester. The assigned textbook during this period was a general one titled *New Interchange*. In the current phase starting from 2009 up to now, English continued to be taught for only two hours per week in the last semester, and only for police cadets with university degrees in humanities (Alhuqbani, 2014). However, teaching emphasis has been switched to teaching English for security purposes, reflecting the growing need to teach police cadets materials related to their future police tasks. The assigned textbook was *English for Security Purposes: Book One* (2nd edition, 2012) by M. Alhuqbani who based the content of this textbook on the results of his studies of Saudi police officers' English needs (2008) and motivations and attitudes (2009). Some of these changes, especially those ones related to the course duration and timing, took place at KFSC without taking into account the opinions of important parties such as English instructors, former police cadets and current police cadets. According to Weir and Roberts (1994), different stakeholders such as instructors and students should participate in program evaluation because a single evaluator may not be able to provide a comprehensive evaluation of the course or program under question. Therefore, this study attempted to find out how these three groups view the ESP course and teaching at KFSC and how their opinions can be used to improve the teaching of English for security purposes at KFSC.

IV. PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

The main purpose of the study was to evaluate the appropriateness and effectiveness of the English course and teaching at KFSC through the perspectives of teachers, current police cadets and former police cadets in terms of program density of hours, length, objectives, content and target learners. Additionally, this study aimed to suggest relevant adaptations and contribute to the improvement of the teaching of English to police cadets at KFSC.

V. SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

To the best knowledge of the researcher, there are no evaluation studies in the context of teaching English for police purposes in the ESP literature. In light of this, it is important to assess the effectiveness and adequacy of the English ESP course at KFSC, which is developed for Saudi police cadets. The findings of this study will help increase the body

of knowledge that is available in terms of ESP course design, materials and teaching methodology pertaining to police cadets. It is also hoped that the findings of this study will inform educators and decision makers at KFSC about the characteristics of the current English course and teaching as viewed by teachers, current and previous police cadets. Therefore, this study will help KFSC policy makers to find out how effective the current English teaching course is, along with identifying the strengths and weaknesses of the course, if there are any. This evaluation study will also help administrators at KFSC make relevant changes and additions to the current ESP course. It is hoped that the results of the study will provide valuable insights into the effectiveness of the English course and be used as a framework for the improvement of English teaching at KFSC.

VI. RESEARCH QUESTIONS

The study addressed the following two related research questions:

1. How do teachers, former police cadets and current police cadets view the ESP course and teaching at KFSC?
2. What are the pedagogical implications of the research findings to the teaching of English at KFSC?

VII. METHOD

A. Participants

In order to obtain a wide range of diverse and sometimes contradictory views on the teaching of English at KFSC, the study focused on three types of participants: six English teachers, 16 former police cadets, and 122 current police cadets. The teachers were five Saudis and one Jordanian. Four of them have masters' degrees in English teaching and two have masters' degrees in translation studies. Three of them have been teaching English at KFSC for more than 20 years. One teacher has been teaching English at the college for seven years. Two teachers started teaching English at the college two years ago. The sixteen former police cadets joined the college as first lieutenants this year after graduating from KFSC with a diploma in security sciences. They originally have bachelor degrees in various fields such as computer sciences and law. Fifty-two of the current police cadets were drawn from a class in the one-year diploma program, which is designed for university students with bachelor degrees in sciences. Seventy cadets were in the two-year diploma program, which is geared for university students with bachelor degrees in humanities.

B. Instruments

1. Questionnaire

Both quantitative and qualitative methodologies were adopted in this study. Quantitative data were collected by means of a short questionnaire developed by the researcher for each group. The teachers' questionnaire included fifteen statements. The former police cadets' questionnaire consisted of twelve statements. The current police cadets' questionnaire included seven statements. The statements in each questionnaire described the participants' opinion about the teaching of English to police cadets at KFSC. There were some statements repeated in each questionnaire because they sought the opinion of the three types of participants on the same matter. The three questionnaires were written and introduced in Arabic in order to get more accurate data from the participants and avoid confusion. Each questionnaire was pilot tested with two participants from each group, not involved in the study, to ensure clarity in the statements. Overall, the participants found the statements in the three short questionnaires comprehensible and easy to score.

2. Observation

Descriptive data was collected by observing the way English is taught at KFSC. The researcher, who has been teaching and supervising English at KFSC since 2004, wrote down his daily observation of what others say about teaching English at KFSC including teachers, previous cadets, on-the-job officers and some administrators. The observed data was exclusively used in this study to aid the interpretation of the data collected via the three questionnaires described above.

C. Data Collection and Analysis Procedures

The researcher collected data through three different means. For the English teachers, the researcher emailed the questionnaire to them and solicited them to answer it and email it back within one week. The current cadets received the questionnaire in their classes through their instructors. Similarly, the former police cadets, who joined KFSC in 2013 as 1st lieutenant officers, received their questionnaire during one of their preparatory classes which they were required to take. All the three groups received the questionnaires in the first semester of the academic year 2013/2014, except 25 cadets who were drawn from a class in the second semester in which English is taught to the cadets in the two-year security diploma. The Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) program was employed to analyze the data. The participants' responses to the questionnaire items were coded as follows: strongly agree - 5, agree - 4, strongly disagree - 3, disagree - 2, uncertain - 1. The frequencies, means, percentages, and standard deviations for the questionnaire items were demonstrated in tables. A t-test was used to compare the two current groups of cadets' opinion on statements that were similar. The cadets were classified into two groups: cadets with university degrees in humanities versus cadets with degrees in science. Furthermore, a one way ANOVA test was used to examine the three

participants' (teachers, current cadets, recent police graduates) opinion on statements that were similar across the three questionnaires.

VIII. RESULTS

A. Teachers' Perspectives

Table 1 below presents the percentages of the six teachers' perspectives of the English course and English teaching at KFSC.

TABLE 1.
PERCENTAGES OF TEACHERS' PERSPECTIVES OF TEACHING ENGLISH AT KFSC

Questionnaire Statements	SA	A	SD	D	UC
1. The college's objectives for teaching English are clear and written down.	16.7	33.3	33.3	16.7	
2. Teaching English for two hours per week is sufficient for the college's cadets.		16.7	66.7		16.7
3. Teaching English for one semester is enough for the college's cadets.		33.3	66.7		
4. General objectives of teaching English to the cadets must be formulated and made available to teachers	50	50			
5. Increasing the number of hours for teaching English is necessary for the college cadets, so that they can use English in their security jobs	50	16.7			33.3
6. English should be taught to the college's cadets in the first and second semester in every academic year.	33.3	33.3		16.7	16.7
7. There is a periodical evaluation of the English language program to determine its appropriateness and objectives achievement		16.7	33.3	33.3	16.7
8. There is a positive interaction between the cadets and the current English course.			50	50	
9. The general content of the English program is consistent with the cadets' needs for English for security Purposes	16.7	33.3		33.3	16.7
10. Teaching English in the college does not receive clear and practical support from those in charge of education in the college	66.7		16.7	16.7	
11. There false beliefs inside the college weakened the teaching of English such as English is not important to the college cadets, the college is not the right environment to learn English, etc	66.7				33.3
12. The current teaching of English in the college is weak in general due to the absence of the necessary ingredients for its success	100				
13. During my teaching I observed that the cadets suffered from the limited hours assigned to English teaching, and they asked increase of the number of hours, so that they can improve their English proficiency level	33.3	16.7	33.3		16.7
14. Limiting the teaching of English for security purposes to cadets with degrees in humanities means that half of the college's cadets with science degrees graduate with no training on how to use English for security purposes.	33.3	50		16.7	
15. The current English teaching (the number of hours and its duration) was suggested by the English teachers and was employed accordingly by the education policy makers in the college.			33.3		66.7

Note: SA= Strongly agree A= Agree SD= Strongly disagree D= disagree UC= uncertain

The analysis of the results showed that the teachers seem to be equally divided with regard to statement no.1: the clarity and availability of the college's objectives for teaching English to its cadets. The teachers, who strongly disagreed with this statement, had experience over 20 years in teaching English at KFSC, whereas two of the other three teachers who agreed to this statement had experience of less than two years in teaching English at KFSC. The teachers' divided opinion over the clarity and availability of learning objectives disappear in their responses to statement no. 4. All the teachers either strongly agreed or just agreed that general objectives of teaching English to the cadets must be formulated and made known to the teachers.

With regard to the duration of the English course as expressed in statements no. 2 and 3, the majority of the teachers (66.7%) strongly disagreed with teaching English for just two hours per week. Therefore, more than half of the teachers (66.7%) agreed that increasing the number of hours for teaching English would help the cadets practice and use English in their future security sectors. Since increasing the hours of English teaching requires more space on the timetable, 66.6% of the teachers agreed that teaching English should take place not only in the second semester of the final year, but also in the first semester in every academic year.

It is not surprising, however, that the inadequacy of the current English course and teaching at KFSC has gone unnoticed for a long time because, as the majority of teachers (66.6%) pointed out, there is no periodical evaluation of the English teaching. For this reason and among others, all the six teachers (100%) indicated that there was no positive interaction between the cadets and the current English course and teaching. This may explain why the majority of the teachers (66.7%) say that teaching English in the college does not receive clear and practical support from the college administration. Other factors may also have contributed to this lack of interaction between the cadets and the current English course. For example, more than half of the teachers (66.7%) agreed that false beliefs inside the college such as English is not important to the college cadets and the college is not the right environment to learn English have weakened the teaching of English at the college. Another factor may include what all the six teachers (100%) agreed to is that the current teaching of English in the college is weak in general due to the absence of the necessary requirements for success. For example, half of the teachers (50%) disagreed with the limited hours (two hours) assigned to English teaching in the college.

Despite their description of the current ESP program and teaching as generally weak, half of the teachers (50%) agreed that the general content of this course is consistent with the cadets' needs for English for security Purposes. The content of this course is based on police related topics and activities.

Teaching English for security purposes to one group of cadets at the college is rejected by the majority of the teachers (83.3%), whose opinion is that limiting the teaching of English for security purposes to cadets with university degrees in humanities would exclude half of the college's police cadets with science degrees from receiving training on how to use English for security purposes.

Finally, the majority of the teachers (66.7%) are uncertain about who suggested the current English teaching in terms of the course duration and its timing. In fact, 33.3% of the teachers denied that this course was suggested by them.

B. Former Police Cadets' Perspectives

One of the most important sources of information in language course evaluation is former students' feedback because they have experienced its advantages and disadvantages. Table 2 below summarizes the former police cadets' evaluation of the current English course and teaching at KFSC. The majority of the former police cadets (62.5%) disagreed with teaching English for two hours per week as shown in statements no. 1. Similarly, 66.6% of the former police cadets disagreed with teaching English for one semester as mentioned in statement no. 2. To affirm their attitude towards statements no. 1 and 2, more than half of the former police cadets (60%) agreed to increasing the number of hours for teaching English at KFSC, and 53.3% agreed to teaching English in the first and second semester in every academic year. With regard to the interaction between the former cadets and the current English course, they seem to be divided in their opinions. However, half of them (50%) disagreed with the content of statement no. 5 and indicated that there was no interaction between them and the current English course. Twenty-five percent of the former police cadets agreed that there was positive interaction, and the other 25 percent were uncertain. When asked about whether the general content of the English course is consistent with the cadets' needs for English for security purposes, the majority of the former cadets (81.3%) agreed to that. Similar to the teacher's opinion, half of the former police cadets (50.1%) agreed that English teaching in the college does not receive tangible support from the college administration. That is why the majority of the former cadets (68.8%) described the current English course as generally weak because it does not meet the requirements associated with successful language courses. To get their feedback about which group of police cadets should be taught English at KFSC, more than half of the former cadets (53.3%) agreed that English should only be presented to cadets in the humanities track diploma. In contrast, 40% of them disagreed to this statement. The majority of the former cadets (62.6%) disagreed with the college's policy in not introducing English to cadets with university degrees in science. They indicated that teaching English for security purposes should be introduced to cadets with university degrees in science such as medicine and engineering. Finally, the bulk of the former police cadets (81.2%) disagreed with statement no. 11, which says there is no need to teach English to the cadets because they have studied it at the university level and they have good command of it. Despite this emphasis on teaching English at the college, the former police cadets were divided about the benefit they got from studying English at the college in developing their skills in English for security purposes. Half of them (50%) indicated they did not benefit, whereas 43.8% said they did.

TABLE 2.
PERCENTAGES OF FORMER POLICE CADETS' PERSPECTIVES OF TEACHING ENGLISH AT KFSC

Questionnaire Statements	SA	A	SD	D	UC
1. Teaching English for two hours per week is sufficient for the college's cadets.	6.3	18.8	12.5	50	12.5
2. Teaching English for one semester is enough for the college's cadets.	12.5	18.8	6.3	62.5	
3. Increasing the number of hours for teaching English is necessary for the college cadets, so that they can use English in their security jobs	46.7	13.3	13.3	13.3	13.3
4. English should be taught to the college's cadets in the first and second semester in every academic year.	33.3	20	13.3	26.7	6.7
5. There is a positive interaction between the cadets and the current English course.		25	25	25	25
6. The general content of the English course is consistent with the cadets' needs for English for security purposes		81.3		6.3	12.5
7. Teaching English in the college does not receive clear and practical support from those in charge of education in the college	6.3	43.8	12.5	18.8	18.8
8. The current English course in the college is weak in general due to the absence of the necessary ingredients for its success	6.3	62.5	6.3	6.3	18.8
9. Teaching English for security purposes should be limited only to cadets with university degrees in humanities as used currently	20	33.3	20	20	6.7
10. Teaching English for security purposes should be introduced to cadets with university degrees in sciences such as medicine and engineering.	6.3	56.3	12.5	12.5	12.5
11. There is no need to teach English to the college's cadets because they have studied it at the university level and they have good command of it.	6.3	12.5	43.7	37.5	
12. I benefited from studying English at the college in developing my skills in English for security purposes.		43.8	25	25	6.3

Note: The number of former police cadets is 16.

C. Current Police Cadets' Perspectives

Table 3 below shows the percentages of current police cadets' perspectives of teaching English at KFSC. The current cadets' opinion of teaching English for two hours and for one semester is consistent with the teachers and former police cadets' perspectives. Half of the current cadets (50.8%) disagreed with statement no. 1 that described teaching English for two hours and for one semester as sufficient. As a result of this disagreement, the majority of the current cadets (71.1%) agreed that increasing the number of hours for English instructions would raise their English competence and help them use English in their assigned security sectors. The current cadets' positive attitude towards increasing the number of hours for English teaching can further be seen in their positive opinion (70.3%) that English should be introduced to the cadets in the first and second semester in every academic year. It seems that is why more than half of the current police cadets (58.7%) described the current English course as generally weak. With regard to statement 5 which is concerned with limiting the teaching of English to cadets with university degrees in humanities, more than half of the police cadets (55.8%) did not agree with this statement. This is further can be seen in their opinion of statement no. 6. The majority of the cadets (66.3%) agreed that English should be taught to the other cadets with university degrees in sciences such as medicine and engineering. Finally, the majority of the current police cadets (70.5%) disagreed with the content of statement no. 7, which says that there is no need to teach English to the college's cadets because they have already studied it at the university level and they have good command of it.

TABLE 3.
PERCENTAGES OF CURRENT POLICE CADETS' PERSPECTIVES OF TEACHING ENGLISH AT KFSC

Questionnaire Statements	SA	A	SD	D	UC
1. Teaching English for one semester and two hours per week is sufficient for the college's cadets.	15.2	28.7	27	23.8	4.9
2. Increasing the number of hours for teaching English to the college cadets is necessary to raise their competence and make them capable of using English in their security jobs.	45.5	25.6	14	13.2	1.7
3. English should be taught to the college's cadets in the first and second semester in every academic year, so that they can achieve competency in English.	42.6	28.7	15.6	13.1	
4. The current English course in the college is weak in general due to the absence of the necessary ingredients for its success	33.1	25.6	9.9	4.6	27.3
5. Teaching English for security purposes should be limited to cadets with university degrees in humanities as used currently	18.3	19.2	27.5	28.3	6.7
6. Teaching English for security purposes should be introduced to cadets with university degrees in sciences such as medicine and engineering.	39.3	27	15.6	13.9	4.1
7. There is no need to teach English to the college's cadets because they have studied it at the university level and they have good command of it.	14.8	11.5	41	29.5	3.3

To test the effect of university degree (science vs. humanities) on the cadets' responses, an independent-samples t-test was conducted. There was a statistically significant difference between the two groups with regard to statement n. 2.: increasing the number of English instruction hours. Police cadets with university degrees in humanities (M=3.8386, SD=1.12895) significantly differed from their counterparts with science degrees (M=4.2353, SD=1.10613), $t=-1.974$, $p = 0.051$. Similarly, cadets with university degrees in humanities (M=3.8429, SD=1.103049) significantly differed in their opinion of whether English should be taught in first and second semester from cadets with science degrees (M=4.2308, SD=1.105933), $t=-2.032$, $p = 0.044$.

D. Similarities and Differences among Stakeholders

To test the similarities and differences between the three groups' opinions (teachers, former police cadets, current police cadets), a One-Way ANOVA test was employed. Table 4 below displays these questionnaire statements found in each group's questionnaire. There was a statistically significant difference between the three groups' means with regard to statement no. 1: Teaching English for two hours per week is sufficient for the college's cadets. The significance level is 0.035 ($p = .035$), which is below 0.05. Post hoc comparisons using the Tukey HSD test indicated that the mean score for current cadets (M = 3.2623, SD = 1.13402) was significantly different than the former police cadets (M = 2.5625, SD = 1.15289) and teachers (M=3.8000, SD=.83666). However, the three groups did not differ in terms of the other four statements.

TABLE 4.
ANOVA ANALYSIS OF THE SIMILARITIES AND DIFFERENCES AMONG STAKEHOLDERS REGARDING TEACHING ENGLISH AT KFSC

Questionnaire Statements	df	Mean Square	F	Sig
1. Teaching English for two hours per week is sufficient for the college's cadets.	140	1.274	3.444	.035*
2. Teaching English for one semester is enough for the college's cadets.	140	1.292	1.422	.245
3. Increasing the number of hours for teaching English to the college cadets is necessary to raise their competence and make them capable of using English in their security jobs.	138	1.366	1.103	.335
4. English should be taught to the college's cadets in the first and second semester in every academic year.	139	1.179	2.077	.129
5. The current teaching of English in the college is weak in general due to the absence of the necessary ingredients for its success	139	2.456	.522	.594

Note: The significance level is below 0.05.

IX. DISCUSSION

The primary concern of this study was to evaluate the ESP course and English teaching at KFSC by means of the perspectives of three important stakeholders, namely the teachers, former police cadets and current police cadets. The overall goal behind this research project was to determine the appropriateness and effectiveness of the English ESP course and teaching at KFSC, and contribute to the improvement of the teaching of English to police cadets in Saudi Arabia. The analysis of the results has shown several violations of some of the principles involved in ESP course design and teaching, which may account for the participants' dissatisfaction with the ESP course and teaching at KFSC. These principles are discussed here.

A. *The Target Learners and Their English Needs*

In 2000, KFSC began to restrict its admission to university students with bachelor degrees in humanities and sciences. English is not introduced to university science students based on the unverified assumption that they had intensive English at the university level and hence they had no problem with communicating in English (Alhuqbani, 2014). This claim is groundless since it was based on intuition rather than research. Mackay and Palmer (1981) argued that many ESP well-intentioned programs have foundered because they were based on imagination rather than an objective analysis of the target learners' situations in which they will need to be able to use English. The research findings of this study showed that more than 73% of the current police cadets with university degrees in sciences agreed that English for security purposes should be introduced to them at KFSC. This finding is consistent with Alhuqbani's (2014) finding that police cadets of KFSC with university degrees in sciences expressed their need to study English for security purposes.

In ESP theory, learners are usually adults who have studied English for some time and therefore acquired some knowledge of English and are learning the language needed in a particular occupation or domain of knowledge in order to acquire professional skills and to perform particular job-related tasks (Pranckevičiūtė & Zajankauskaitė, 2011). That makes police cadets with university degrees in sciences the perfect candidates for the ESP program at KFSC because they have already developed some knowledge of general English and the English used in their university disciplines (e.g., engineering, medicine, computer sciences). The exclusion of this group of learners from any instructions in English for security purposes means that they would join their assigned security sectors after graduation without knowing and using important security terms and understanding texts. This exclusion of half of the college's police cadets from ESP instructions provides concrete evidence that the cadets' English needs were not taken into account prior to the teaching of English at KFSC. It further shows that teaching English at the college is not based on the needs of the cadets and their future security sectors. Needs assessment of the target learners' language needs is by definition the cornerstone of any ESP course design (Dudley-Evans & St. John, 1998), and subsequent decisions involved in the design and development of an ESP program such as course objectives, instructional materials and teaching methodologies depend on it (Robinson, 1991; Shing & Sim, 2012). It is therefore considered the first step in ESP program development (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987; Robinson, 1991).

B. *Course Objectives*

The results showed clearly that the general objectives of teaching English to Saudi police cadets at KFSC must be formulated and made known to all teachers, so that they abide by them and work hard to achieve them. This may explain why the stakeholders in this study expressed their dissatisfaction with the current ESP course and teaching at KFSC. In ESP, formulating the course objectives follow the identification of the target learners' English needs. In this regard, Mackay and Mounford (1978, p. 17) argued that "as a result of the needs analysis, we should be able to draw up our objectives for the ESP course." Cunningsworth (1983) concluded that course objectives should be derived from the ESP learners' needs in order to help them accomplish their goals. Despite that the current textbook used to teach English for security purposes include four general objectives in the introduction, they do not represent the college's objectives from teaching English to its police cadets, and therefore no obligation can be made. In addition to taking into account the learners' English needs when writing up the course objectives, the security sectors' needs for English in the workplace should be carefully considered and translated into operational objectives. Since KFSC is the host academic institution of all Saudi would-be-officers, the college needs to formulate the ESP course objectives to reflect the needs of the security sectors where English might be used. The findings of previous studies (e.g., Alhuqbani, 2008, 2009, 2014) which assessed the English needs of police officers and cadets in Saudi Arabia can be used as a starting point to translate these needs into measurable objectives. Finally, formulating the course objectives should be developed according to one learning theory or more which can guide the teachers and administrators toward the accomplishment of the course objectives.

C. *Course Duration*

The three groups of participants (teachers, former police cadets, current police cadets) in this evaluation study were unsatisfied with the duration of the ESP course and teaching at KFSC. It is not theoretically clear and justified why the college devoted just two hours of English instructions per week in the last semester for its police cadets with university degrees in humanities, just before their graduation. A possible reason, yet not justified, is that the cadets are given many subjects in police and legal studies, which made English a secondary subject.

It is generally known that ESP courses are short in duration, but dense in hours. They are designed to help students meet their job requirements as revealed by the needs assessment and translated in a set of operational learning objectives. Two hours per week are not enough to teach English for security purposes, especially for police cadets who had limited English instructions at the university level. Also, introducing English for security purposes in the fourth and last semester undermines the importance of English to police work. Police cadets in the fourth semester are almost officers since they are already assigned to security sectors with the rank of first lieutenants awaiting their graduation ceremony. This has negative impact on their motivation and attitudes for learning English (Alhuqbani, 2014).

D. Course Evaluation

The analysis of the teachers' questionnaire showed that there was no periodical evaluation of the English language course at KFSC to determine its appropriateness and objectives achievement. This explains why the course continues to exist for more than a decade without adjustment. Despite that program evaluation is an indispensable procedure in ESP because it determines whether the objectives of an ESP program have been met and guarantees the program's continuous improvement (Tsou & Chen, 2014), it is usually avoided due to several factors. Batchman (1981) contended that lack of ESP program evaluations is due to the impression that it is carried out in an informal ad hoc manner, and that evaluation is rarely incorporated into the ESP course design. Other factors may include the short duration of ESP courses and the difficulties resulting from the execution of program evaluation which is time-consuming (Tsou & Chen, 2014).

X. CONCLUSION AND PEDAGOGICAL IMPLICATIONS

To conclude, this research revealed certain findings and pedagogical implications emerging from the analysis of the stakeholders' responses to the questionnaires. Overall, the findings indicated that the current ESP course is ineffective and inappropriate because it lacks the major principles associated with the teaching of English for specific purposes such as meeting the police cadets' actual needs and turning these needs into course operational objectives that can be measurable. The three groups of stakeholders agreed that teaching English for security purposes is very important to Saudi police cadets regardless of their previous English instruction at the university level. But, this importance is undermined by the way it is administratively introduced to the cadets. They expressed their strong disagreement with the course duration and timing.

The findings have important pedagogical implications to the teaching of English to police cadets at KFSC. They can be summarized in the following points.

1. The ESP course and teaching at KFSC should be redesigned and reshuffled to incorporate the English needs of the police cadets and their future security sectors.
2. The college's objectives and goals from teaching English to its police cadets should be written down and made clear to all parties involved in the teaching and learning process of English for security purposes. These course objectives and goals should be based on the English needs of police cadets and their future security sectors.
3. English for security purposes should be taught to all police cadets in the college irrespective of their previous instruction in English at the university level because they have not studied it for security purposes. It is the responsibility of the college administration to prepare the police cadets to function linguistically in their future security sectors.
4. The duration of the English course and its timing do not help the police cadets study and practice English for security purposes. Extra hours are needed. One way to do so is to introduce English to the cadets in every semester, not just in the final semester as it is done currently.
5. Both formative and summative evaluation should be conducted as part of the ESP course and teaching. The current ESP course and teaching at KFSC would not continue in the way it does now if formative and summative evaluation measurements were applied. Stakeholders can fix any problems with the ESP course through regular evaluation.

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Reading Strategies Employed by Business English Majors with Different Levels of Exposure to Specialized Courses

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Abstract—This study investigated the use of reading strategies by the university Business English majors in relation to their levels of exposure to specialized courses. The participants were 926 university Business English majors from 6 universities in Southwest China. A Strategy Questionnaire for Business English Reading was used to collect the data. The results revealed that the overall use of reading strategies between the students with less and more exposure to specialized courses had no significant variations. At the category level, the students with less exposure to specialized courses reported significantly more use of the strategies in the POS category than the students with more exposure to specialized courses, while the students with more exposure to specialized courses reported using the strategies in the SCT sub-category of WHS category significantly more frequently than the students with less exposure to specialized courses. In terms of the individual strategy use, 18 out of the 45 strategies across the questionnaire showed significant variations. Overall, the students with less exposure to specialized courses reported employing the individual strategies significantly more frequently than the students with more exposure to specialized courses.

Index Terms— reading strategies, Business English major, level of exposure to specialized courses

I. INTRODUCTION

“Reading is an active and fluent process which involves the reader and the reading material in building meaning.” (Anderson, 1999, p. 1). Goodman (1995, p. 12) states that “Reading is a receptive language process. It is a psycholinguistic process in that it starts with a linguistic surface representation encoded by a writer and ends with meaning which the reader constructs”. Reading comprehension is the interaction between the reader and the text. It is an active process in which the reader infers and interprets what is on the page based on individual attitudes, interest, expectations, skills and prior knowledge he or she brings to the reading task (Irwin (1986). Reading plays a crucial role in language learning. It is one of the most important language skills that students should be equipped with. It is through reading that the students access a lot of information concerning the target language and culture. For either ESL or EFL learners, it is the important skill to master in order to ensure success in language learning (Anderson, 1999).

Reading strategies are “deliberate, cognitive steps that readers can take to assist in acquiring, storing and retrieving new information” (Anderson, 1991, p. 460). It is a physical or mental action used consciously or unconsciously with the intention of facilitating comprehension in reading (Davies, 1995). They are a set of abilities under conscious control of the reader. Reading strategies play a crucial role in ESL and EFL reading. As Song (1998) asserts, reading strategies are important because they can help the readers facilitate reading comprehension and enhance reading efficiency. Researchers have long recognized the strong relationship between the use of reading strategies and the reading achievement. The success in reading is linked to the quality and quantity of reading strategies used (Oxford, 1989; Brown, 1989; Alderson, 2000). Many studies have revealed that the strategic readers are good at drawing on a variety of strategies to accomplish the purposes of reading. Effective readers are more aware of strategy use than less effective readers (e.g. Hosenfield, 1977; Block, 1986; Anderson, 1991; 1992; Sheory and Mokhtari, 2001; Anastasiou and Griva, 2009; Maarof and Yaacob, 2011).

In China, the studies on reading strategies are very few. The research in this field was mainly conducted in the university context, using the university students as participants. These studies mainly focus on investigating the relationships between the reading strategies and reading proficiency (Liu, 2002; Liu 2004; Liu and Zhang, 2008; Zhang and Wu, 2009; Luo 2010). The results of these studies revealed that there were some correlations between the readers’ reading proficiency and their reading strategy use. The strategies used by proficient readers and less proficient readers varied significantly. Generally, students with higher reading proficiency reported employing reading strategies significantly more frequently than the students with lower reading proficiency. Only one or two researchers investigated

the students' use of reading strategies in relation to some other variables, such as gender (Luo and Han, 2011); field of study, teacher' gender, type of university, and students' extensive reading (Luo, 2010). The findings of these studies showed that some variables, such as the students' gender and extensive reading, had significant correlation with the students' use of reading strategies. To the best knowledge of the researcher, up to the present, no empirical studies have been carried out specifically to investigate the use of reading strategies by university Business English majors in relation to their levels of exposure to specialized courses. The purpose of this study is intended to fill in this gap.

Schema theory emphasizes the influence of learners' background knowledge on reading comprehension. Brown (2001) classifies schemata into two categories: content schemata and formal schemata. The former refers to the knowledge of people, the world, culture and the universe, whereas the latter refers to the knowledge of the structure of texts. The background knowledge relating to the topic may assist the readers in learning from the text (Hayes and Tierney, 1982). Research has revealed that comprehension can be achieved more easily if the readers have appropriate schemata or frames about the new information being presented in the reading texts than the readers who lack the schemata to fit the new information (Anderson, 2004). Some reading strategies relating to readers' schemata, such as previewing text and examining the title and subheadings, can help to improve the readers' comprehension of both explicit and implicit information (Grave and Cooke, 1980). Wenden (1991) states that the use of strategies is the outcome of a variety of factors, especially the subjects' background knowledge about subject matter content and about learning, the nature of the materials to be learned and the product or outcome that the learner has in mind.

In China, the Business English program is mainly divided into the lower-year stage (the first and the second years) and higher-year stage (the third and the fourth year). The focus of the lower-year stage is on the students' improvement in language skills although the students also learn some basic courses about business. Language learning is in the first place and content knowledge learning is in the second in this phase. In higher-year stage, the focus is on the learning of Business courses using English as the medium. In this stage, content knowledge learning is in the first place and language learning is in the second. The degrees of contacting with the business content between the students of the two stages are obviously different. According to Oxford (1990), stage of learning is one of the factors that may influence learners' strategy choice. Therefore, it can be hypothesized that the students of the two groups may employ different reading strategies to deal with the content reading. The level of exposure to specialized materials can be seen as a factor of learning experience that may have impact on the students' choices of reading strategies. So far, this factor has not been taken into consideration in the previous reading strategy research. For this reason, it is worthy and necessary to take this variable into the present study to examine whether there is relationship between the use of reading strategies by the university Business English majors and their levels of exposure to the specialized courses in the ESP context. The research questions are: Do the reading strategies employed by university Business English majors vary significantly in terms of their levels of exposure to specialized courses at the overall, category and individual levels? If they do, what are the main patterns of variation?

II. RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

A. *Key Terms of the Present Study*

Business English Majors

"Business English majors" in the present study refers to the university students in Southwest China who major in the business-oriented English program. It is an English-medium program, in which the students are required to learn the English language used in the communication of the international business as well as the specialized courses concerning international trade, commerce and economics. using English as the medium.

Reading Strategies

"Reading strategies" in the present study is defined as the skills, techniques, methods and behaviors that the university Business English majors employ to enhance their reading comprehension or solve their reading problems and difficulties when reading Business English texts (Chen and Intaraprasert, 2014, p. 27).

Level of Exposure to Specialized Courses

"Level of exposure to specialized courses" refers to the degree that the students contact with the specialized courses relating to international Business using English as the medium. In the present study, the students' levels of exposure to specialized were classified as 'less' (the first- and second-year students) and 'more' (the third- and fourth-year students), as the students in Business English program mainly learn language courses in the first two years and learn specialized courses in the last two years.

B. *Participants*

The participants for the present study were 926 university Business English majors selected from 6 universities in Southwest China through the use of cluster sampling method. Firstly, the researcher divided the population for the present study into 3 clusters: Guizhou Province, Yunnan Province and Chongqing City. Then 2 universities were selected from each of the clusters. Finally, the researcher selected the participants from the intact classes in each of the universities based on their availability and convenience. Totally, 312 students in Guizhou Province, 310 students in Yunnan Province and 304 students in Chongqing City were chosen for the present investigation.

C. Data Collection

The instrument used to collect the data for the present investigation was the Strategy Questionnaire for Business English Reading (SQBER), which was adopted from Chen and Intaraprasert (2014). This questionnaire was constructed to investigate the strategy use of the university business English majors. The reading questionnaire comprises 45 strategy items, which were classified into 3 categories, i.e. 1) PRS category (Pre-reading Strategies), 2) WHS category (While-reading Strategies), and 3) POS category (Post-reading Strategies). The WHS category (While-reading Strategies) was further divided into SCT (Strategies for Comprehending the Text) and SCD (Strategies for Coping with Difficulties) sub-categories. A 4-point rating scale adopted from Intaraprasert (2000) was used to determine the frequency levels of the students' reading strategy use. The scales were valued as 1, 2, 3, and 4, which represented 'Never', 'Sometimes', 'Often' and 'Always/Almost always'. The internal reliability estimate of Alpha Coefficient (α) of the questionnaire was .91 based on the responses of the 926 participants, which was much higher than the acceptable reliability coefficient of .70.

D. Data Analysis

The data obtained from the questionnaires were inputted into the computer and SPSS program was conducted to analyze the data. The statistical methods used in the present study included the ANOVA (Analysis of Variance) and the Chi-square test. The ANOVA was employed to examine the variations of the students' strategy use at the overall and category levels. The Chi-square test was employed to examine the variations of the students' use of reading strategies at the individual strategy level.

III. RESULTS

The following is the findings of the present study. The results are reported in a top-down manner. That is, the variations in the frequency of students' strategy use according to their levels of reading proficiency are presented at the overall, category and individual levels in sequence.

A. Variations in Frequency of Students' Overall Reading Strategy Use

The results of ANOVA are summarized in Table 1 below, which consists of the variable, mean frequency score (mean), standard deviation (S.D.), significant level and variation patterns in frequency of strategy use. As shown in Table 1, the students' overall strategy use did not vary significantly according to the students' level of exposure to specialized courses ($p > .05$). That is to say, no significant variations existed in the frequency of overall strategy use between the students with more and less exposure to specialized courses.

TABLE I
VARIATION IN FREQUENCY OF STUDENTS' OVERALL READING STRATEGY USE

Variable		Mean	S.D.	Sig. Level	Variation Pattern
Level of Exposure to Specialized Courses	More	2.39	.33	N.S.	-----
	Less	2.40	.34		

Note: N.S. stands for no significance

B. Variations in Frequency of Students' Strategy Use in the Categories

As mentioned earlier, the reading strategies were classified into three categories of PRS (While-reading Strategies), WHS (While-reading Strategies) and POS (Post-reading Strategies). The results of ANOVA in Table 2 showed that the students' reading strategy use in the POS category varied significantly according to their levels of exposure to specialized courses ($p < .05$). The mean frequency score of the students with less exposure to specialized courses (2.26) was higher than the students with more exposure to specialized courses (2.19), indicating that the students with less exposure to specialized courses employed reading strategies significantly more frequently than the students with more exposure to specialized courses in the post-reading stage. No significant variations in the use of reading strategies in the PRS and WHS categories were found between the two groups of students.

TABLE II
VARIATION IN FREQUENCY OF STUDENTS' READING STRATEGY USE IN THE CATEGORY

Strategy Category	More (n=462)		Less (n=464)		Sig. Level	Variation Pattern
	Mean	S.D.	Mean	S.D.		
PRS Category	2.47	.38	2.51	.42	N.S.	-----
WHS Category	2.50	.34	2.47	.34	N.S.	-----
POS Category	2.19	.47	2.26	.43	P<.05	Less>More

When taking a closer look at the sub-categories of the WHS category, some differences appeared, although significant differences have not been found in the WHS category in terms of students' levels of exposure to specialized courses, significant differences of the students' reading strategy use were found in the SCT sub-category of the WHS category. The results of ANOVA showed that the students with more exposure to specialized courses reported using significantly more reading strategies than the students with less exposure to specialized courses. The students of the two

groups did not differ significantly in the use of reading strategies in the SCD sub-category. The results are presented in Table 3 below.

TABLE III
VARIATION IN FREQUENCY OF STUDENTS' READING STRATEGY USE IN THE SUB-CATEGORY

Sub-Category	More (n=462)		Less (n=464)		Sig. Level	Variation Pattern
	Mean	S.D.	Mean	S.D.		
SCT Category	2.56	.39	2.51	.39	P<.05	More>Less
SCD Category	2.42	.36	2.43	.35	N.S.	-----

C. Variations in Frequency of Students' Individual Strategy Use

Sections 3.1 and 3.2 have presented the variations in the students' reading strategy use at the overall and category levels. This section is to present the results of the Chi-square Tests. As mentioned earlier, the Chi-square Tests were used to examine the individual strategy items for significant variations in terms of the students' levels of exposure to specialized courses. To demonstrate the results of the Chi-square Tests, the percentage of the students reporting high use of the individual strategies (3 and 4 in the strategy questionnaire) and the observed Chi-square value (χ^2) which shows the strength of variation in use of each individual strategy were identified. As presented in Table 4, the results of the Chi-square tests showed that of the 45 reading strategies across the questionnaire, 18 strategies in the three categories of the PRS, WHS and POS varied significantly according to the students' levels of exposure to specialized courses. The results of the Chi-square tests revealed two patterns of variation: 'L>M' and 'M>L'. 'L>M' refers that a significantly greater percentage of the students with less exposure to specialized than the students with more exposure to specialized reported high use of that particular strategy. 'M>L' refers that a significantly greater percentage of the students with more exposure to specialized courses than the students with less exposure to specialized courses reported high use of that particular strategy.

In the variation pattern of 'L>M', a significantly greater percentage of the students with less exposure to specialized courses than the students with more exposure to specialized courses reported high use of 12 reading strategies. Among the 12 strategies showing significant variation, three are the strategies for pre-reading, such as 'PRS4. Read or check the new word list', 'PRS5. Glance over the foot notes, tables and graphics', and 'PRS10. Make predictions or inference about the content of the text'; five are the strategies for while-reading (WHS), examples are: 'WHS4. Read every word and sentence slowly and carefully' and 'WHS18. Ask the teachers, classmates or friends for help'; four are the strategies for post-reading (POS), such as 'POS6. Read other resources about the same topic' and 'POS10. Discuss the problems and difficulties with teachers/friends'. Regarding the variation pattern of 'L>M', a significantly greater percentage of the students with more exposure to specialized courses than the students with less exposure to specialized courses reported high frequency of use of 6 reading strategies. Among these strategies, one is the strategy for pre-reading 'PRS3. Set goals or purposes of reading'; four are the strategies for while-reading, such as 'WHS2. Use specialized terms as clues or indications' and 'WHS17. Adjust the reading rate accordingly'. The last one is the strategy for post-reading 'POS1. Make critical comments and evaluations on the content of the text'.

In the 'L>M' pattern, over 50% of the students with less exposure to specialized courses reported high use of 5 strategies, while over 50% the students reported high use of only 2 strategies. The top three of this variation pattern are WHS10 (Take notes or mark important information in the text), WHS7 (Make use of the features of the text) and PRS4 (Read or check the new word list). In the variation pattern of 'M>L', more than 50% of the students with more exposure to specialized courses reported high use 5 strategies and there was only 1 strategy for the case of the students with less exposure to specialized courses. The top three of this variation pattern are WHS2 (Use specialized terms as clues or indications), WHS13 (Do fast reading first and peruse later) and WHS17 (Adjust the reading rate accordingly).

TABLE III
 VARIATION IN FREQUENCY OF STUDENTS' INDIVIDUAL READING STRATEGY USE

Individual Learning Strategy Less > More – 12 strategies	% of high use (3 and 4)		Observed χ^2 P<.05	Comments
	More	Less		
WHS10. Take notes or mark the important information in the text.	59.7	66.4	$\chi^2=4.38^*$	L>M
WHS7. Make use of the features of the text.	52.8	59.7	$\chi^2=4.46^*$	L>M
PRS4. Read or check the new word list.	48.3	57.3	$\chi^2=7.62^{**}$	L>M
PRS5. Glance over the foot/end notes, tables and graphics.	46.8	55.0	$\chi^2=6.23^*$	L>M
PRS10. Make predictions/inference about the content of the text.	43.7	50.9	$\chi^2=4.73^*$	L>M
WHS19. Translate the text into Chinese.	37.7	45.9	$\chi^2=6.47^*$	L>M
POS7. Review the notes and marks one made	33.5	40.5	$\chi^2=4.82^*$	L>M
POS4. Summarize the content of the text.	31.4	40.5	$\chi^2=8.38^{**}$	L>M
WHS4. Read every word and sentence slowly and carefully	31.3	38.8	$\chi^2=5.91^*$	L>M
WHS18. Ask the teachers, classmates or friends for help.	26.0	34.3	$\chi^2=7.57^{**}$	L>M
POS10. Discuss the problems and difficulties with teachers or friends.	22.1	32.5	$\chi^2=12.77^{***}$	L>M
POS6. Read other resources about the same topic.	20.8	27.6	$\chi^2=5.85^*$	L>M
More > Less – 6 strategies	More	Less	P<.05	Comments
WHS2. Use specialized terms as clues or indications.	81.4	31.9	$\chi^2=23.08^{***}$	M>L
WHS13. Do fast reading first and peruse later.	64.3	55.4	$\chi^2=7.63^{**}$	M>L
WHS17. Adjust the reading rate accordingly	54.5	47.8	$\chi^2=4.15^*$	M>L
PRS3. Set goals or purposes of reading	52.8	44.4	$\chi^2=6.57^*$	M>L
WHS16. Analyze the structures of the difficult sentences.	40.5	30.6	$\chi^2=9.85^{**}$	M>L
POS1. Make critical comments and evaluations on the content of the text.	21.0	12.1	$\chi^2=13.38^{***}$	M>L

Notes: * P<.05, ** P<.01, *** P<.001

IV. DISCUSSION

The findings of the present investigation revealed that the overall strategy use between the students with more and less exposure to specialized courses had no significant differences. At the category level, the students with less exposure to specialized courses reported significantly more use of reading strategies in the POS category. However, the students with more exposure to specialized courses reported employing the strategies in the sub-category of WHS significantly more frequently. At the individual level, the students with less exposure to specialized courses reported significantly more use of the individual strategies than the students with more exposure to specialized courses.

No previous research has been carried out to investigate the relationships between the Business English majors' levels of exposure to specialized courses and their use of reading strategies. However, two possible factors could be hypothesized to help explain the significant variations in the use of reading strategies between the students with more and less exposure to specialized courses. The two factors are: the difficulty and challenge the students were confronted with in reading and the schemata of the students in business. Regarding the first factor, it could be assumed that the degrees of difficulty and challenge that the students with different levels of exposure to specialized courses were faced with when reading Business English texts were different. As mentioned in Section 2, the students with less exposure to specialized courses were the students in the first and second years. Most of the courses for them were concerning the language skills. The students' focus of study in this phase was on the language knowledge rather than on the business content matter. On the other hand, the courses for the students with more exposure to specialized courses were mainly concerning the business knowledge. The predominant learning task for them was studying the business courses by using English as the medium. Therefore, the students with more exposure to specialized courses would actually involve more English reading relating to business knowledge and they would be more experienced in reading Business English texts than the students with less exposure to specialized courses. Thus, it could be assumed that reading Business English texts would be more difficult and challenging for the students with less exposure to specialized courses than the students with more exposure to specialized courses.

According to Phakiti (2003), learners are likely to be more aware of their performance or behaviors in learning process when they are faced with difficulty. In the present study, it could be inferred that the students with less exposure to specialized courses confronted more difficulties and challenges when reading Business English, and they had to attempt to employ more different strategies to cope with these difficulties and challenges. This could be evidenced by their significantly greater use of the post-reading strategies (POS) than the students with more exposure to specialized courses, which implies that the students with less exposure to specialized courses confronted more difficulties in the

while-reading stage that they needed to do more compensating activities to enhance their comprehension or solve their difficulties after they finished the actual reading. That the students with more exposure to specialized courses employed significantly more strategies in the SCT sub-category of the WHS category indicates that they were more active in reading strategy use in the while-reading stage. This also supports the point mentioned above. Viewing the individual strategy use, although the students with less exposure to specialized courses seemed to employ more strategies, the students with more exposure to specialized courses were more purposive and had higher metacognitive awareness in strategy use as they employed many effective strategies significantly more frequently than the students with less exposure to specialized courses, such as setting goals or purposes of reading (PRS3), doing fast reading first and peruse later, and adjusting the reading rate accordingly (WHS17), etc.

The second factor that may affect the students' use of reading strategies could be the students' schemata in business. As stated earlier in the introduction part, schema theory emphasizes the importance of the readers' background knowledge. When reading, the readers make use of their schemata to interpret the information in the reading texts. A Schema serves as a bridge to connect the new information with the old information (Perkins and Salomon, 1989). The studies (Carrell, 1983; Barnett, 1989; Bruning, 1995; Brantmeier, 2004) revealed that what students already know (their background knowledge) significantly influences their understanding of L2 reading materials. While reading, the readers' schemata on the topic of the reading text will affect their reading process and will actually influence their use of reading strategies. The readers' schemata for the topic help them to anticipate, to infer, to decide what is or is not important, to build relationships between ideas, or to decide what information merits close attention. After reading, they use their schemata to help them recall what they have read and put it into their own words in order to make them understand what they have read better (Alvermann and Pheps, 2002). In the present study, the students with more exposure to specialized courses used significantly more strategies relating to their content schema, such as using specialized terms as clues or indications (WHS2) and make critical comments and evaluation on the content of the text (POS1), as they have more background knowledge about business that enable them to do so. On the other hand, the students of less exposure to specialized courses seemed to put more effort into decoding the meanings of the words and sentences. They tended to use more strategies in relation to the formal or linguistic schemata, such as reading or check the new word list (PRS4), making use of features of the text (WHS7) and reading every word and sentence slowly and carefully (WHS4), as they did not have that much business background knowledge as the students with more exposure to specialized courses had.

V. CONCLUSION

The present study investigated the use of reading strategies by the university Business English majors in Southwest China in terms of their levels of exposure to specialized courses. The results revealed that no significant variations existed in the students' use of reading strategies at the overall level. At the category level, variations were found in the use of reading strategies in the POS category and the SCT sub-category of the WHS category. The students with less exposure to specialized courses reported employing the strategies in the POS category significantly more frequently than the students with more exposure to specialized courses, while the students with more exposure to specialized courses reported significantly greater use of the strategies in the SCT sub-category of the WHS category. At the individual strategy level, the students with less exposure to specialized courses reported employing 12 strategies significantly more frequently than the students with more exposure to specialized courses, whereas the students with more exposure to specialized courses reported employing 6 strategies significantly more frequently than the students with less exposure to specialized courses.

It seems that the students with less exposure to specialized courses employed more strategies than the students with more exposure to specialized courses. However, we found that they actually reported significantly more use of the strategies in the POS category and the strategies involving simple cognition. Whereas, the students with more exposure to specialized courses used the strategies in the SCT sub-category significantly more frequently. They also reported significantly greater use of the strategies relating to metacognition. The findings of the present study indicate that students with less exposure to specialized courses have more difficulties in reading Business English and they are not good at employing more effective and sophisticated strategies to enhance their comprehension when reading Business English texts, especially in the while-reading stage. This means that students of less exposure to specialized courses need more help in Business English reading. Teachers of Business English reading should put more effort to cultivate their strategic awareness, especially the metacognitive awareness, and train them to know how, when, where to use reading strategies to comprehend the Business English texts better.

APPENDIX. STRATEGY QUESTIONNAIRE FOR BUSINESS ENGLISH READING (SQBER)

This questionnaire is designed to collect the information about the university Business English majors' reading strategy employment when they read their specialized texts. I would like to ask you to do me a favor by answering the following questions concerning how you read business English texts. This is not a test, so there are no 'right' or 'wrong' answers. The aim of the questionnaire is to collect the personal opinions. I do hope to get your sincere answers.

Your answers to the questionnaire will be used for academic research only and will be treated with the utmost confidentiality. Your cooperation and contribution will be very much appreciated.

Instructions: This questionnaire consists two parts:

- Part 1. Personal information
- Part 2. Reading strategy items

Part 1. Personal information

Please provide your personal information by putting a tick (✓) in the box of the choices given or write the response where necessary.

Your gender: Male Female

The name of your university: _____

Academic year of study: 1st year 2nd year 3rd year 4th year

You regard your English reading proficiency as:

Very good Good Fair Poor Very poor

Do you like Business English?

Yes No

The frequency of reading Business English out of classroom:

Never /Seldom Sometimes Often Every day/almost every day

Part 2

Reading Strategy Questionnaire

Instructions: The following statements are the descriptions about Business English reading strategies. Please read each statement carefully and consider how frequently you employ the given strategies while reading Business English. Please mark your response with a '✓' in the corresponding space provided. The answers are just your own opinions and there are no 'right' or 'wrong'. Please give your answers sincerely.

“Never”	means that you <i>never</i> use the strategy when reading
“Sometimes”	means that you <i>occasionally</i> use the strategy when reading
“Often”	means that you use the strategy <i>frequently</i> when reading
“Always/Almost always	means that you use the strategy <i>most of the time</i> when reading

1. Pre-reading Strategies: Before reading Business English texts, do you employ any strategies to help you understand the materials you are going to read? If yes, please specify the frequency.

Statements of the strategies	Frequency of your own reading strategies use			
	Never	Sometimes	Often	Always/Almost always
1. Read the title of the text carefully.				
2. Construct my related knowledge about the topic.				
3. Set goals or purposes of reading.				
4. Read or check the new word list.				
5. Glance over the foot notes, tables and graphics, etc. (if any)				
6. Read the questions about the text. (if any)				
7. Read the first and the last paragraphs.				
8. Skim the text.				
9. Read the first or the last sentence of each paragraph.				
10. Make predictions or inference about the content of the text.				
11. Search for some related information about the topic.				

2. While-reading Strategies: While reading Business English texts, do you employ any strategies to enhance your comprehension or solve your reading problems and difficulties? If yes, please specify the frequency.

Statements of the reading strategies (Strategies for comprehending the text)	Frequency of your own reading strategies use			
	Never	Sometimes	Often	Always/Almost always
12. Pay attention to the key words in the text.				
13. Use specialized terms as clues or indications.				
14. Search for the topic sentence of each paragraph.				
15. Read every word and sentence slowly and carefully.				
16. Confirm my predictions or inference.				
17. Raise questions about some information in the text..				
18. Make use of the features of the text (e.g. notes, tables and italics).				
19. Consider the logic, coherence and consistency of the textual information.				
20. Draw on my prior knowledge of the topic.				
21. Take notes or mark the important information in the text.				
22. Pause and think about what I am reading from time to time.				
23. Skip or neglect the unneeded or unimportant content.				
24. Do fast reading first and peruse later.				
Statements of the reading strategies (Strategies for coping with difficulties)	Frequency of your own reading strategies use			
	Never	Sometimes	Often	Always/Almost always
25. Analyze the formation of the unknown words.				
26. Guess the meanings of the words or the sentences from the context.				
27. Analyze the structures of difficult sentences.				
28. Adjust reading rate accordingly				
29. Ask the teachers, classmate or friends for help.				
30. Translate the text into Chinese.				
31. Make use of word collocations.				
32. Consult the dictionary for the new words.				
33. Reread the difficult parts.				
34. Skip the new words or difficult sentences.				
35. Consult references to solve my reading problems or difficulties.				

3. Post-reading Strategies: After reading Business English texts, do you employ any strategies to help you understand the texts better? If yes, please specify the frequency.

Statements of the strategies	Frequency of your own reading strategies use			
	Never	Sometimes	Often	Always/Almost always
36. Make critical comments and evaluations on the content of the text.				
37. Look up the new words in the dictionary				
38. Reflect or evaluate my reading performance and results.				
39. Summarize what I read.				
40. Review the content of the text.				
41. Read other resources about the same topic.				
42. Review the notes and marks I made.				
43. Conclude my reading problems/difficulties.				
44. Summarize the mistakes I made.				
45. Discuss the problems and difficulties with teachers or friends.				

46. Apart from the strategies mentioned above, are there any strategies that you employ when you read Business English? Please identify:

Thank you very much for your corporation!

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Identifying Correlation between Reading Strategies Instruction and L2 Text Comprehension

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Abstract—The present study aims at exploring correlation between reading strategies instruction and proficiency in text comprehension. The task is carried out by investigating the current practices of teaching and learning of L2 reading comprehension skills of the higher level L2 learners of English in Pakistan. In this regard, initially, the extent to which teachers incorporate reading strategies instruction into their teaching of ESL reading skills is analyzed; and students' proficiency in L2 text comprehension is evaluated. Subsequently, correlation between the two variables is identified by applying Pearson Product-moment correlational test on the statistical scores attained for each variable. The research has employed both quantitative and qualitative measures for data collection and analysis. The research instruments include a questionnaire for students pertaining to the availability of reading strategy instruction, and a reading comprehension test. The results acquired through the collected data and their statistical analyses have highlighted a strong positive correlation between reading strategies instruction and learners' proficiency in text comprehension.

Index Terms—reading strategies instruction, text comprehension, ESL reading skills, reading proficiency

I. INTRODUCTION

English, being an international language, offers a rich source of information, knowledge and learning throughout the world. In Pakistan, it enjoys the status of a second language. A greater part of knowledge and information in Pakistan is accessible to the common public in the form of printed materials in English language i.e. books, weekly/monthly magazines, daily newspapers, journals, newsletters, fliers, brochures and advertisements etc. Hence, there is a need to develop the reading skills of the L2 learners of English so that they can easily respond to the world which brims with a good deal of knowledge in this language.

Reading is one of the most important skills for academic learning and success “Reading is essential for success in acquiring a second language. After all, reading is the basis of instruction in all aspects of language learning” (Mikulecky, 2008, p.1). Eskey (2002) considers reading as a major source of comprehensible input in language learning, and recognizes it as a skill that is most needed to be employed by the serious learners. When we talk about reading as a skill, there are two basic things involved: first, to be able to identify and recognize the written symbols on the page; and second, to understand and interpret those symbols in order to decode meanings. The former (knowing how to read) is simply named as reading or reading ability, whereas the latter is differentiated as reading comprehension or comprehension proficiency. There are many reasons which make reading comprehension an important learning skill. If a person is able to recognize the written symbols but is not able to understand the meaning, it means that he has not got much.

At higher education level i.e. university level, reading is as important a skill as any of the other skills involved. When the learners make transition from their school/college to the university, they have to face changes in the requirements of learning. Same is the case with reading. The nature of reading changes as the learners shift from college to university learning because of the sharp increase in reading load and difficulty. Now, more and more independent reading is required to learn significant modules of a course of study. Hence, students require transforming their passive style of reading into actively involved reading. However, being not familiar with or habitual of active reading, the students fail to construct accurate comprehension of the presented materials. As a natural outcome, they start disliking reading tasks which actually form the basis of their true learning. At this stage, it is very essential to eliminate students' fear of reading tasks. Here, the role of the teachers is very importance because it is the teachers who can make students overcome their ill-feelings about reading by developing active reading skills in them. This can be carried out by developing and promoting active reading skills and strategies among ESL students. Reading strategies are the strategies which help to promote the comprehension of the written texts. They help to make one's reading an active process, as by

using these strategies, a reader can actively interact with the text and get a variety of meanings. Teaching these strategies to ESL learners in a formal language classroom is termed as reading strategies instruction.

Having realized the importance of the reading skills at university level education, the researchers were motivated to know whether these skills are being focused at higher education level in their own locality i.e. Bahawalpur, a district in the region of Southern Punjab in Pakistan. For this purpose, The Islamia University of Bahawalpur was selected as a research site because this is the only university providing graduate and postgraduate level education in the area the researchers belong to i.e. the area of Southern Punjab. The researchers planned to determine the nature and extent of reading strategies instruction practiced by the teachers of The Islamia University of Bahawalpur in their ESL classrooms and the subsequent impact of this type of instruction on students' reading comprehension ability.

Research Questions

The study investigates the following research questions:

1. To what extent is reading strategies instruction being provided to the L2 learners of English?
2. To what extent are the L2 learners of English proficient in text comprehension?
3. Is there any correlation between reading strategies instruction and learners' proficiency in text comprehension?

II. THEORETICAL BACKGROUND

A. Reading

The word 'reading' has been so variously defined by experts that it is hard to provide a comprehensive definition of the term. However the following three major categories can be categorized on the basis of some commonly recognized definitions:

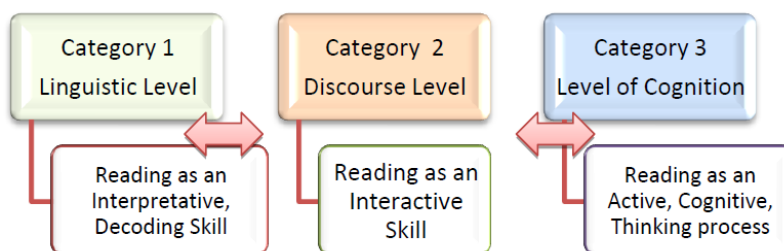


Figure 1: Commonly recognized definitions of 'Reading'

Note: The mediation arrows represent the inter-connection among the three leveled-definitions of reading.

1. Reading as an Interpretative, Decoding Skill

Reading is regarded as an interpretative or decoding skill as it engages the reader to decode the textual message by identifying printed symbols in order to interpret their meanings. Many researchers define reading as an interpretative process. For example, Urquhart and Weir (1998, p. 22) state that reading "is the process of receiving and interpreting information encoded in language form via the medium of print." Similarly, Williams (1996) terms reading as a process of looking at and understanding a written text.

2. Reading as an Interactive Skill

Reading is also defined in terms of an interactive process. For example, Ransom (1978) affirms that reading is a conversation between the writer and the reader. Likewise, Shaw (1959) explains that reading is the communication of thoughts, moods, and emotions through which one receives from others their ideas and feelings (cited in Rahman, 2007). Nuttall (1996, p. 4) regards reading as the process of "getting out of the text as nearly as possible the message the writer puts into it."

3. Reading as an Active, Cognitive, Thinking Process

Some of the experts regard reading as an active, conceptual, thinking process. Rauch and Weinstein (1968) term reading as an active, alert thinking process where the reader matches the writer thought for thought. Shaw (1959) cited by Rahman (2007), supports the idea by stating that reading is thinking with the author and absorbing his ideas. Hence, Reading is not a passive skill. It engages the reader in a kind of mental exercise. It is not just an act of going through the text, rather it demands certain attitudes and reactions on the part of the reader towards the text.

B. Reading Comprehension

Reading is often regarded as a twofold process: the first thing involved in reading is to identify and recognize the written symbols (words); next step is to straighten the way for perception and internalization of the meaning. Such is the elaboration of the reading process presented by Dechant (1982, p. 288) who explains 'word identification' and 'comprehension' as the two stages of the process of reading. Comprehension is defined as reading text with understanding. It is the process of making sense of words, sentences and connected speech. Rice (2009, p. 2) suggests that comprehension is not an outcome in itself. It is rather a process "through which a reader interacts with a text to construct meaning".

C. Reading Comprehension Strategies

The skills or strategies needed to understand a text are called reading strategies or comprehension strategies. Adler (2001) reflects that comprehension strategies are conscious plans — sets of steps that good readers use to make sense of the text. The findings of the last 25 years studies have led to the common realization that good readers use comprehension strategies to facilitate the construction of meaning.

D. Types of Reading Comprehension Strategies

Reading strategies have been classified differently by different experts. Some of the researchers have classified reading strategies into three parts according to their use, i.e. before-reading, while-reading and post-reading strategies. For example, Pressley & Wharton-McDonald (1997) indicate that good readers of all ages engage in conscious, active comprehension strategies before, during and after reading. Rice (2009) supports the claim by enlisting various types of pre-reading, while-reading and post-reading strategies a reader might use. Before reading, according to him, such strategies may be used as setting goals for reading, thinking about what is already known about the topic and examining the structure of a text. While-reading strategies may include activating prior knowledge, making connections among important ideas, resolving comprehension difficulties, making notes in the margins or underlining important portions of the passage. Post-reading strategies, on the other hand, may include re-reading key points, skimming through the text or summarizing the passage. He further comments that good readers continue to reflect the meaning of a text long after they read it.

A more comprehensive classification of reading strategies has been offered by Zhang (1993) who divides reading comprehension strategies into four general categories: cognitive strategies, compensation strategies, memory strategies and test-taking strategies.

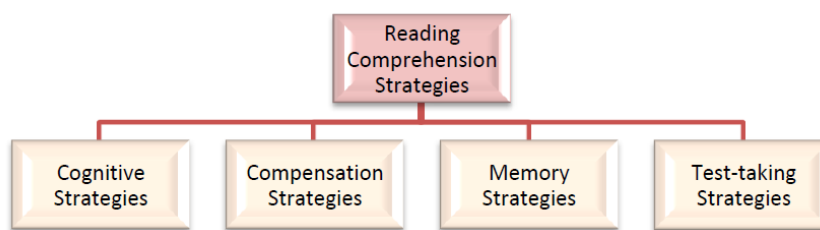


Figure 2: Types of Reading Comprehension Strategies

1. Cognitive Strategies

Reading comprehension is a cognitive process requiring different cognitive strategies. These strategies include using prior knowledge, previewing, predicting and self-questioning etc.

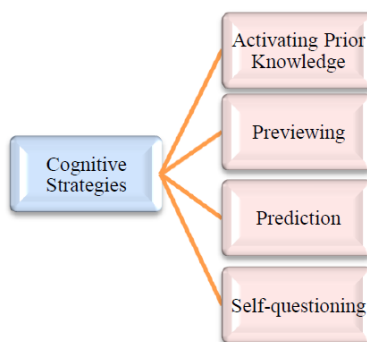


Figure 3: Types of Cognitive Strategies

a. Activating Prior Knowledge

Activating prior knowledge means making connections between the new and the known. The concept of prior knowledge is based upon Schema theory. The basic assumption in this theory is that new information is learnt by connecting it with one’s previously learnt information to construct meaning. The information which one already has is called prior knowledge or schemata (plural of schema). Nuttall (1996) informs that the schema is an abstract structure in the mind. This structure is organized of all of the experiences a person ever had. In the context of reading, schemata refer to conceptual understanding, experiences, attitudes, values, and skills a reader brings to a text situation. Research has strongly supported that schemata or prior knowledge has a positive correlation with reading comprehension. For instance, Vacca (2002) affirms that readers are in a better position to comprehend what they are reading whenever they use prior knowledge (schemata) to construct meaning. Likewise, Rauch and Weinstein (1968) claim that prior knowledge or experience enables the reader to pursue the text meanings effectively.

b. Previewing

Previewing means ‘guessing before reading’. It is a very quick technique to find out where the required information is likely to be (Grellet, 1996, p. 17- 18). It involves using the title of a text, figures, graphs, charts, diagrams, the table of contents, the index, the appendices, the preface of the author or publisher, headings or subtitles of chapters and paragraphs, information in the back cover etc. By using these clues, good readers make guesses about what a text may be about. Rahman (2007) states that this skill saves students’ time by helping them to search out intended and specific information within a few minutes.

c. Prediction

Prediction means guessing while reading. Predicting involves thinking ahead while reading, and anticipating information and events in the text (Grellet, 1996). Hedge (1985) proposes that a successful reading does not require going through each and every line in the text. Instead, the readers depend largely on the prediction from the syntactic and semantic clues and their previous knowledge.

d. Self-Questioning

Self-questioning means interrogating oneself about the text during and after reading for different purposes such as checking one’s own understanding of the text, querying about author’s point, and making connections and relationships among ideas and information within the text. Vacca (2002) asserts that skilled readers are prompted to self-question when they notice important points or come across a host of different ideas in the text in order to understand their implicit, logical relationships contributing to the whole meaning.

2. Compensation Strategies

Compensation strategies may be defined as the strategies the readers use to compensate any difficulty or confusion they encounter in the way of getting meanings out of a text (Zhang, 1993).

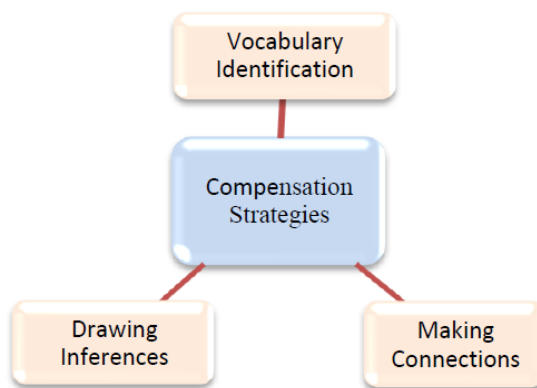


Figure 4: Types of Compensation Strategies

a. Vocabulary identification: knowing how words work

Studies conducted on the importance of vocabulary instruction demonstrate that there is a direct link between vocabulary development and reading comprehension and that it plays a major role in improving comprehension. Zhang (1993:6) opines, “One problem encountered by many readers is unfamiliar vocabulary and unknown concepts. This is where the reader needs to use compensation strategies to arrive at comprehension”. There are various types of vocabulary comprehension skills such as using context clues, recognizing words with multiple meanings, understanding connotative and denotative meanings, using part of speech for meaning and using personal experiences and background knowledge (schemata)

b. Drawing Inferences

Making inference means filling in the gaps left by the author. This implies realizing unstated statements of the author, or linking different segments which the writer did not link explicitly. Rahman (2007) states that sometimes, the writers suggest something indirectly instead of stating it directly through words. So, it becomes “the responsibility of the readers to infer this information” (p. 44). Inferencing is also known as ‘reading between the lines’.

c. Making Connections

This strategy is referred to as reading beyond the lines. Through this strategy reader looks the currently got information of the target text in the light of his previous life experiences, other texts he ever read before, and cultural and global matters to enrich the meanings and deepen the understanding of what the author says.

3. Memory Strategies

Memory strategies include the techniques which help to memorize, store and retain the details of a text.

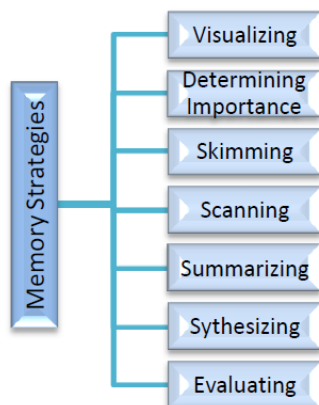


Figure 5: Types of Memory Strategies

a. Visualizing/Creating Mental Images

Visualizing refers to forming mental and visual images of the textual content. There is an old saying that a picture is worth a thousand words. When it comes to comprehension, this saying might be paraphrased, ‘a visual display helps readers understand, organize, and remember some of those thousand words’ (Duke & Pearson, 2002). Visual representation causes the textual information to retain in memory for a longer time.

b. Determining Importance

This strategy involves distinguishing important details from the unimportant ones. It helps students to identify explicit and implicit ideas, extract the essence of the text, give a conceptual summary and realize relevance of ideas and information which facilitate memory and, subsequently, comprehension of the text.

c. Skimming

Grellet (1996, p. 4) and Urquhart and Weir (1998, p. 102) define skimming as ‘reading for gist’. According to Williams (1996), the purpose of skimming is “simply to see what a text is about. The reader skims in order to satisfy a very general curiosity about the text, and not to find the answer to particular questions.” (p. 96-97). Experts have given much importance to skimming as a reading strategy. For example, Rayner and Pollatsek (1989) argue that people have to confront too many books with multiplicity of meanings and variety of information. In such situations, skimming facilitates them by saving their time.

d. Scanning

Scanning refers to reading a text in order to find out a particular piece of information. Williams (1996, p. 107) defines scanning as “reading for particular points”. In Nuttall’s (1996) opinion, scanning is “glancing rapidly through a text either to search for a specific piece of information”.

e. Summarizing

Summary means short, coherent and cohesive description of the essential ideas of a text. It is a written or spoken statement of the main points and their relation to each other. It is usually very short, so it must include only the most important ideas. Research suggests that instruction and practice in summarizing not only improves students’ ability to summarize text, but also their overall comprehension of text content (Duke & Pearson, 2002).

f. Synthesizing Information

Synthesis involves making ideas of the text go together in new patterns, rearranging textual information and combining it with the information from different sources in a way that new learning fits together with the old learning resulting in coherent unique patterns..

g. Evaluating

Evaluation means live interaction with the text. It might refer to checking probability or improbability of the text in the light of one’s prior knowledge and understanding of the world. It also refers to thinking about author’s or characters’ value judgments, and allows readers to agree or disagree with the author’s point.

4. Test-Taking Strategies

The type of strategies which readers require to perform well in the various tests of reading comprehension and recall are called test taking strategies. Researchers have recommended a number of test taking strategies. Most of the studies are related with multiple choice items in standardized tests. Pearson and Johnson (1978) based their study on question types and corresponding question-answering strategies. Their findings identified three types of questions and corresponding locations for their answers:

- Textually explicit questions whose answers can be located in the text directly on the lines.
- Textually implicit questions whose answers can be located between the lines.
- Scriptally implicit questions whose answers can only be generated beyond the lines.

Zhang (1993, p. 11) presents two test taking strategies as recommended by Jacobs (1985), Oxford (1990) and Zhang (1992). The first strategy is that before reading a passage, the test taker should first read questions and answers. This will help the reader focus on the relevant information in the text. Secondly, the test taker should answer each question

by the process of elimination for multiple choice questions. These strategies may improve their reading efficiency and test results.

Having analyzed the nature of all types of reading strategies, the researchers have been able to sketch a model of the types of reading strategies with a view to Pressley & Wharton-McDonald's (1997) and Rice's (2009) classification, i.e. before reading, while reading and post reading strategies. The researchers' proposed model is presented below:

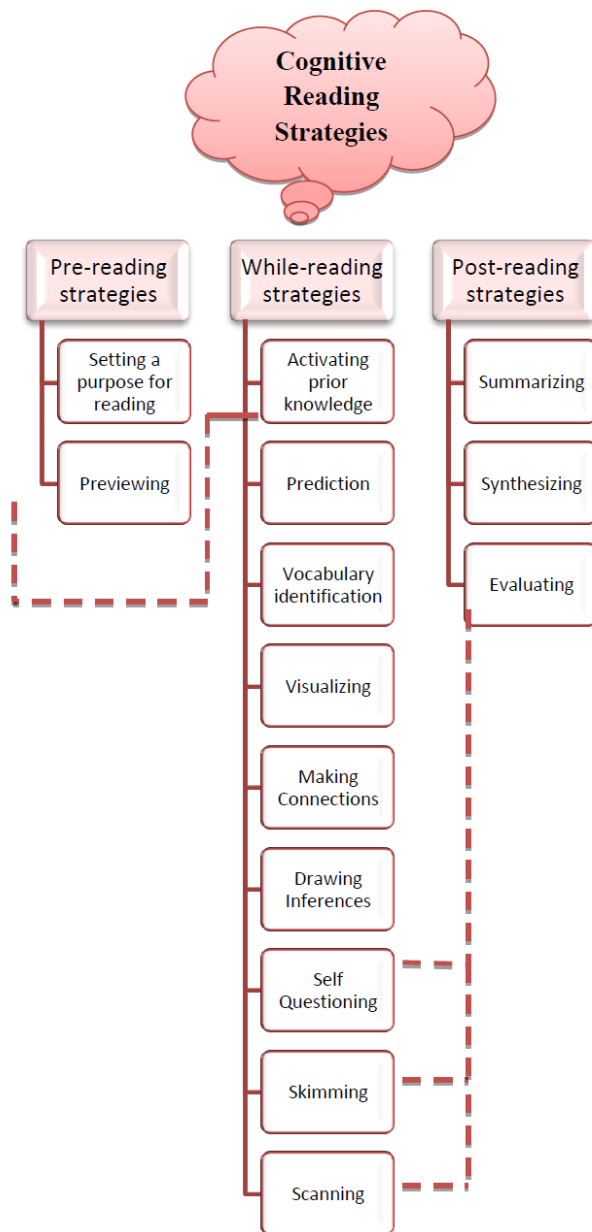


Figure 6: Pre-reading, While-reading and Post-reading Strategies

E. Reading Strategy Instruction

At present, research has started focusing on whether it is possible to improve learners' comprehension through comprehension strategy instruction. Many studies have shown that reading strategies can be taught to students, and when taught, strategies help improve students' performance on tests of comprehension and recall (Carrell, 1985; Brown & Palincsar, 1989; Carrell, et al., 1989; Pearson & Fielding, 1991 cited in Song, 1998). Research on reading strategies instruction is available both in L1 and L2 context. Both of the contexts have demonstrated that reading strategies can be taught to students, and that they can bring improvement in their reading proficiency. For example, in one of the studies, Brown and Palincsar (1984) gave individual training of four concrete reading strategies (summarizing, questioning, clarifying, and predicting) to 7th grade native speakers of English outside the classroom setting. They found that the strategy training effectively enhanced native English speakers' reading ability. Later, in an attempt to identify the implications of Brown and Palincsar's (1984) study in an EFL context, Song (1998) investigated the impact of Brown and Palincsar's (1984) strategy training on the reading ability of EFL university students in classroom settings. The

results disclosed that the reading strategy training does improve EFL students' reading proficiency. In the same stratum, Baier (2005) conducted a research on fourteen sixth grade L2 learners who underwent a six week long study of Self-Questioning Reading Strategy; the study was based upon explicit instruction. A comparison of students' reading comprehension pre-test and post-test scores revealed an overall improvement in their reading comprehension.

With an eye to the aforementioned studies depicting the impact of reading strategies instruction on reading comprehension ability of L1 and L2 learners, the researchers ventured to undertake the study on L2 reading skills in the region of southern Punjab in Pakistan. This study was planned to investigate and highlight the nature of relationship between reading strategies instruction and learners' proficiency in ESL text comprehension. Henceforth, the following methodology was designed by the researchers.

III. RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

The study is based upon both quantitative and qualitative methods of data collection and analysis. Being correlational in its nature and type, the study employed correlational paradigms, but these paradigms were initially ascertained through descriptive means of investigation. The variables involved were surveyed, analyzed and described in terms of the extent, measure and frequency of their existence in the target population, which in turn paved way for identifying correlations among them. These correlations were recognized through applying standard correlational tests on the variables involved.

A. Research Site and Participants

The study was conducted at the department of English, The Islamia University of Bahawalpur, which formulates the basic site for data collection and implementation of the results obtained through the present research. The focus of the study was reading comprehension skills taught and learnt in ELT context in the above mentioned research site. The research sample consisted of 40 students taken as 'participants' in the present research context. The participants were selected randomly from B.A Hons classes (3rd, 5th, and 7th semesters) of the department of English, The Islamia University of Bahawalpur. The participants' consent and voluntary willingness to participate in the research was especially considered during their selection as research participants. The participants comprised of both male and female students.

B. Data Collection Tools

A questionnaire and a critical reading test were used as data collection tools.

1. Questionnaire

Students' questionnaire was aimed at assessing their teachers' use of different types of reading strategies instruction while teaching reading skills to ESL learners (participants). The questionnaire included 33 items whose responses were developed in terms of 5-point likert scale depicting frequency of use i.e. never, rarely, sometimes, often and always. Each of the items asked how often a particular reading strategy was used by the participants' teachers as a part of their reading instruction. The items were confined to reading comprehension strategy instruction only, as the aspects related to correct pronunciation, repeated reading, silent and loud reading or fluency and speed in reading have not been dealt with in the present research. For an ease of understanding and analysis on the part of the participants and researcher respectively, the items in the questionnaire were divided into three sections, i.e. pre-reading, while reading and post-reading strategies based upon the model presented by the researchers in figure 6 (pg. 12). This was basically a self-designed questionnaire. However, a few of the items (1, 3, 6, 8, 11, 12, 19, 20, 21, 22, 23, 25 and 28) were adopted from Rahman (2007) and rephrased to suit questionnaire's design and structure. The questionnaire consisted of three parts: pre-reading, while-reading and post-reading. The three parts inquire different types of strategies instruction practiced by the participants' teachers in their pre-reading, while-reading and post-reading teaching sessions respectively.

2. Reading Comprehension Test

The reading comprehension test was designed to check participants' reading comprehension ability. It consisted of a passage containing 5 paragraphs. The respondents were asked to write answers to the 14 questions given at the end of the passage.

IV. DATA ANALYSIS AND FINDINGS

The study employed both quantitative and qualitative methods for data analysis and its interpretation. The questionnaire, being quantitative in nature, was analyzed statistically by using Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) software. The reading comprehension test, being qualitative in nature, was first marked and graded. Then the attained results were quantified and statistically computed by submitting the participants' achieved scores for each item to SPSS followed by their interpretation. The results of the two tools were compared and contrasted in the light of the formulated research questions and presented in the form of tables, charts, graphs and figures. The findings associated with each instrument were first discussed through descriptive statistics followed by the identification of correlations among different key as well as sub-variables (factors). Following the statistical trends and rules, the explored correlations were then depicted through scatter plots and charts.

A. Analysis of Questionnaire: Measurement of Reading Strategy Instruction

The level of reading strategy instruction was measured through students' questionnaire. The level of provided instruction was characterized as 'very high', 'high', 'medium', 'low' and 'very low' in accordance with the frequency of the participants' answers in response to each question on the 5-point likert scale (Never, Rarely, Sometimes, Often, Always) given in the questionnaire. A very high level of reading strategy instruction was identified for mean score 4.0 or higher; high level of instruction was regarded for mean score 3.5 or higher but lower than 4.0; medium level of instruction was recognized for mean score 2.5 to 3.4; low level of reading strategy instruction was considered for mean score 2.0 to 2.4; and very low instruction was regarded for mean score 1.9 or lower. The key for interpretation is being presented in tabulated form below:

TABLE 1:
KEY TO MEASURE THE LEVEL OF READING STRATEGY INSTRUCTION

Mean Score	Level of Reading Instruction
1.0-1.9	Very low
2.0-2.4	Low
2.5-3.4	Medium
3.5-3.9	High
4.0-5.0	Very high

1. Measurement of Pre-Reading Strategy Instruction

The first section of the questionnaire was meant to measure the level of pre-reading strategy instruction provided to the participants. The following statistics were computed for this section:

TABLE 2:
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS FOR PRE-READING STRATEGY INSTRUCTION

No.	Item Description	N	Mean	Standard Deviation
1	Dividing Reading Lesson	35	3.69	1.301
2	Asking Warm-up Questions Before Reading	35	4.51	.853
3	Explaining the Background of the Text	35	4.94	.236
4	Setting a Specific Purpose for Students' Reading	35	4.31	.832
5	Predicting Text Through Titles	35	4.71	.519
6	Interpreting Graphics, Charts, Maps and Tables	35	4.06	.998
Total Pre-reading Strategy Instruction (Average)		35	4.37	.548

As the data exhibits, the mean score for item 1 is 3.69 (high--- $M > 3.5$) while the mean scores for items 2, 3, 4, 5 and 6 are found to be 4.51, 4.94, 4.31, 4.71 and 4.06 respectively (very high--- $M > 4.0$ in each case) which shows that the participants' teachers are very much concerned with practicing pre-reading teaching techniques in their language classroom. They frequently ask warm up questions before starting their reading lesson, explain background of the text and set a purpose for students' reading. They also make their students predict titles and interpret graphics, charts, tables and maps. The overall results show that a very high level of pre-reading strategy instruction (i.e. $M =$ or higher than 4.0) is available to the students.

2. Measurement of Reading Strategy Instruction

The second section of the questionnaire comprised of 17 items of while-reading strategy instruction. The following results were calculated for this section:

TABLE 3:
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS FOR READING STRATEGY INSTRUCTION

No.	Item Description	N	Mean	Standard Deviation
7	Reading a Text with a Set Purpose	35	4.34	.802
8	Using Prior Knowledge and Experience to Understand Text	35	4.46	.886
9	Making Guesses About Upcoming Information	35	4.17	1.200
10	Self-questioning during Reading	35	4.11	.867
11	Guessing the Meaning of Unfamiliar Words	35	4.66	.482
12	Consulting Reference Materials	35	4.71	.622
13	Inferring the Unstated Statement of the Writer	35	4.00	1.163
14	Visualizing the Content of the Text	35	4.31	.796
15	Teaching How to Use Visual Organizers	35	4.03	1.382
16	Re-reading Text on Conflicting Information	35	4.66	.482
17	Underlining Key-Words and Phrases	35	4.83	.514
18	Taking Important Notes While Reading	35	4.66	.765
19	Surveying Text Organization	35	4.00	.804
20	Skimming Through a Text	35	4.54	.741
21	Scanning a Text	35	4.26	.980
22	Reading Text Intensively	35	4.57	.739
23	Reading Text Extensively	35	4.09	.951
Total Reading Strategy Instruction		35	4.38	.383

The above given statistics demonstrate that the ESL learners are exposed to a very high level (M= or higher than 4.00 in case of each variable) of While-Reading Strategy Instruction. It implies that the teachers almost always instructed their students about reading text with a set purpose in mind (M = 4.34), using prior knowledge and experience to understand text (M = 4.46), making guesses about upcoming information in the text (M = 4.17), self-questioning during reading (M = 4.11), guessing the meaning of unfamiliar words and phrases (M = 4.66), consulting reference materials (M = 4.71), inferring the instated statement of the author (M = 4.00), visualizing the content of the written text (M = 4.31) and using various visual organizers (M = 4.03). Moreover, these teachers very frequently made their students re-read text on conflicting information (M = 4.66), underline key words and phrases (M = 4.83) and take important notes while reading (M = 4.66). They also very often taught their students how to survey text organization (M = 4.00), how to skim through a text (M = 4.54), how to scan a text (M = 4.26), how to read text intensively (M = 4.57) or extensively (M = 4.09). The average mean score for total while-reading strategy instruction came out to be 4.38, i.e. very high.

3. Measurement of Post-Reading Strategy Instruction

The third section of the questionnaire aimed to assess post-reading teaching techniques used by ESL teachers of the said population. The following table displays the statistics calculated for this section:

TABLE 4:
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS FOR POST READING STRATEGY INSTRUCTION

No.	Item Description	N	Mean	Standard Deviation
24	Asking Knowledge Based Questions	35	4.71	.458
25	Asking Comprehension Check Questions	35	4.43	1.008
26	Assigning Tasks to Apply Textual Information to Different Contexts	35	4.29	.957
27	Analyzing the Text	35	4.83	.453
28	Analyzing Attitude, Mood, Tone etc. of the Author	35	4.77	.731
29	Practicing Synthesis Skills	35	4.31	.718
30	Evaluating the Textual Information	35	4.66	.482
31	Answering Textually Explicit Questions	35	4.26	.886
32	Answering Textually Implicit Questions	35	4.26	1.067
33	Answering Scriptally Implicit Questions	35	4.11	1.022
Total Post-Reading Strategy Instruction		35	4.46	.537

In the light of the participants’ responses to section 3, as the above data shows, all of the post-reading teaching techniques are found to be in much vogue among ESL teachers of the said population. The total mean score (4.46) implies that a very high level of post-reading strategy instruction (M = or > 4.0) is practiced by the participants’ teachers in their language classroom. To talk about the individual items, their Mean scores are described here:

For item 24 (Does your teacher teach you knowledge based question?) the Mean score is 4.71 (very high), for item 25 (Does your teacher ask you comprehension check questions?) the Mean score is 4.43 (very high), for item 26 (Does your teacher assign you tasks to apply textual information to some different given contexts?) the Mean score is 4.29 (very high), for item 27 (Does your teacher teach you how to analyze text?), the Mean score is 4.83 (very high), for item 28 (Does your teacher teach you how to analyze attitude, mood, tone etc. of the author?) the Mean score is 4.77 (very high), for item 29 (Does your teacher help you practice synthesis skills?) the Mean score is 4.31 (very high), for item 30 (Does your teacher encourage you to evaluate textual information?) the Mean score is 4.66 (very high), for items 31 (Does your teacher teach you how to answer textually explicit questions?) and 32 (Does your teacher teach you how to answer textually implicit questions?) both, the Mean score is 4.26 (very high), and for item 33 (Does your teacher teach you how to answer scriptally implicit questions?) the Mean score is 4.11 (very high).

4. Comparison of the Three Types of Reading Instruction

The results obtained through descriptive statistics of the questionnaire indicate that post-reading strategy instruction (M = 4.46) is more frequently used than any of the other two types of instruction, i.e. pre-reading (M = 4.37) and reading strategy instruction (M = 4.38). This can be shown in the form of a chart as follows:

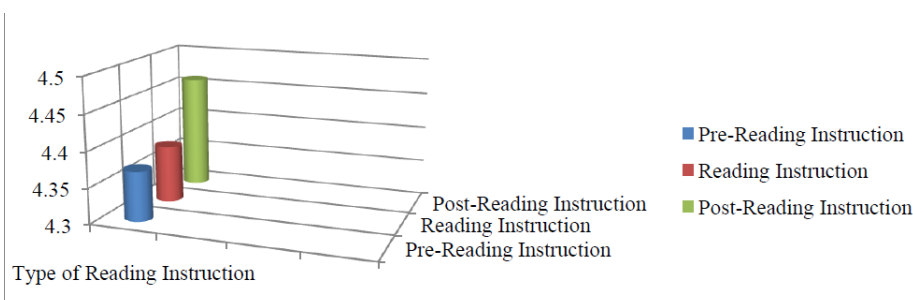


Chart 1: Comparative Scores for Types of Reading Strategy Instruction

Finally, scores for overall reading strategy instruction were calculated which are presented in tabulated form below:

TABLE 5:
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS FOR OVERALL READING STRATEGY INSTRUCTION

Variable Description	N	Mean	Standard Deviation
Total Reading Strategy Instruction	35	4.4017	.41193

The average mean score (4.40) illustrates that on the whole, a very high level of reading strategy instruction is being practiced by the teachers in their ESL classroom.

B. Analysis of Reading Comprehension Test

After its due marking by the researcher, the results of the reading comprehension test were calculated in the form of percentages and their corresponding grades. The following key was used for interpretation of the participants' marks in reading comprehension test.

TABLE 6:
KEY FOR INTERPRETATION OF THE RESULTS OF READING COMPREHENSION TEST

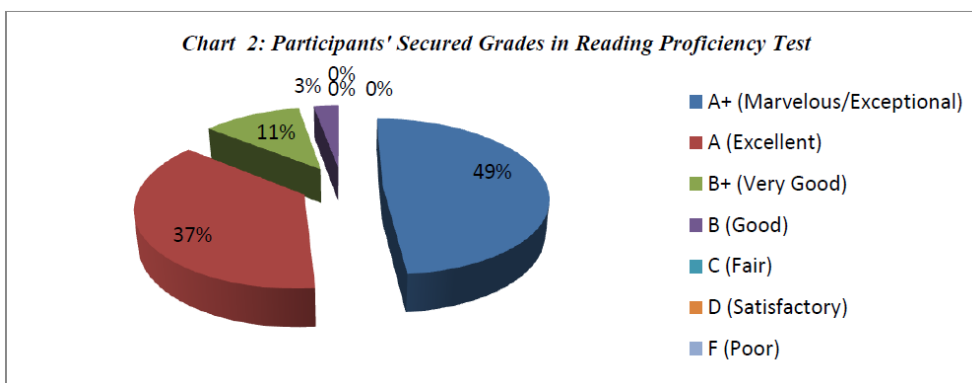
Sr. No.	% Marks	Grade	Remarks
1	90% or above	A+	Marvelous/Exceptional
2	80%-89%	A	Excellent
3	70%-79%	B+	Very Good
4	60%-69%	B	Good
5	50%-59%	C	Fair
6	40%-49%	D	Satisfactory
7	Below 40%	F	Poor

In the light of the above interpretation key, the following data was attained for overall results of the reading comprehension test:

TABLE 7:
OVERALL RESULTS OF THE READING COMPREHENSION TEST

Sr. No	% Marks	Grade	Frequency	Frequency %
1	90% & above	A+	17	49%
2	80%-89%	A	13	37%
3	70%-79%	B+	4	11%
4	60%-69%	B	1	3%
5	50%-59%	C	0	0%
6	40%-49%	D	0	0%
7	Below 40%	F	0	0%

The results reveal that 49% of the students passed the Reading Comprehension Test with A+ grade (Marvelous/Exceptional), 37% of them got A grade (Excellent), 11% secured B+ grade (Very Good) and the remaining 3% of the participants achieved B grade (Good). None of the participants got C (Fair), D (Satisfactory) or F grade (Poor). The top highest (49%) and the second highest percentage (37%) of participants securing A+ and A grades respectively is demonstrative of the fact that students' overall reading comprehension proficiency is excellent. The percentage of students' achieved grades in the said test can be depicted in the form of a pie chart given below:



It is evident from the above data that the participants' showed a very high level of proficiency in text comprehension.

C. Correlation between Reading Strategy Instruction and Reading Comprehension Proficiency

Pearson Product-moment correlation coefficients were computed to investigate the statistical relationship between Reading Strategy Instruction and Proficiency in L2 text comprehension.

TABLE 8:
RESULTS OF PEARSON PRODUCT-MOMENT CORRELATION FOR READING INSTRUCTION AND PROFICIENCY IN TEXT COMPREHENSION

		Reading Strategy Instruction	Proficiency in Reading Comprehension
Reading Strategy Instruction	Pearson Correlation	1	.977**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000
	N	35	35
Proficiency in Reading Comprehension	Pearson Correlation	.977**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	
	N	35	35

** . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

The results communicate that a strong positive correlation exists between reading strategy instruction ($r = .977, p = .000$) and reading comprehension proficiency. The correlation is significant at the level 0.01. The visual representation of this type of correlation is produced in chart 4.9:

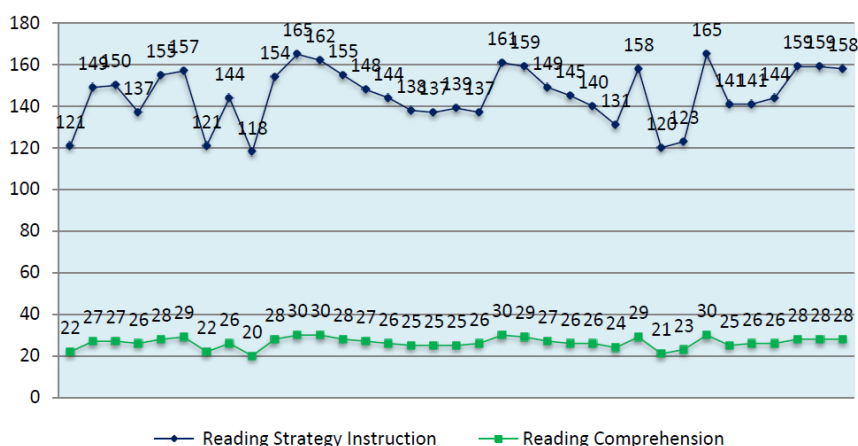


Chart 3: Scatter Plot for Correlation between Reading Strategy Instruction and Reading Comprehension Proficiency.

The strong similarity in the vertical flow of points in each category is supportive of a positive relationship.

D. Determination of Correlations among Different Factor Variables

Having explored the correlations among basic/key variables, the researchers conducted zero order correlations for the sub-variables which are the factors of the major or key variables. Reading instruction has three factor variables: pre-reading instruction, while-reading instruction and post-reading instruction.

TABLE 9:
RESULTS OF PEARSON PRODUCT-MOMENT CORRELATIONS FOR FACTOR VARIABLES

Variables	1	2	3	7
	Pre-Reading Instruction	While-Reading Instruction	Post-Reading Instruction	Proficiency in Text Comprehension
1 Pre-Reading Instruction	---			
Sig. (2-tailed)				
2 While-Reading Instruction	.652**	---		
Sig. (2-tailed)	(.000)			
3 Post-Reading Instruction	.683**	.725**	---	
Sig. (2-tailed)	(.000)	(.000)		
7 Proficiency in Text Comprehension	.856**	.863**	.903**	---
Sig. (2-tailed)	(.000)	(.000)	(.000)	

Through the examination of the above table, it is declared that a very strong positive relationship exists between pre-reading and while-reading instruction ($r = .652, p = .000$), between pre-reading and post-reading Instruction ($r = .683, p = .000$), and between while-reading and post-reading instruction ($r = .725, p = .000$). Pre-reading instruction has also got a very strong positive correlation with reading comprehension ability ($r = .856, p = .000$). Almost same is the case with post-reading instruction which has disclosed a very strong relationship with reading proficiency ($r = .903, p = .000$). Similarly, reading strategy instruction has also shown a very strong relationship with reading proficiency ($r = .863, p = .000$).

V. DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

- With regard to the teachers, the results of the present study have proposed a very hopeful situation. A very satisfactory level of reading strategy instruction is observed being practiced by the teachers of English department at

The Islamia University of Bahawalpur. This suggests that the ESL teachers of the said institute efficiently instruct their learners about the use of various types of pre-reading, while-reading and post-reading strategies in their reading tasks.

- The results of reading comprehension test have also displayed almost an ideal type of linguistic scenario with respect to ESL learners' proficiency in reading comprehension. This stands in controversy to the claims put forward by a number of other researchers in response to their studies contextualized inside or outside Pakistan. For example, Grabe (1991), who believes that reading is the most important skill for L2 learning, claims that in Asian countries students obtaining the higher level studies lack sufficient reading skills. The present study has disclosed that this claim does not stand valid at least in the context of the L2 learners of The Islamia University of Bahawalpur, as it is found that ESL learners of English department at this institute are highly proficient in text comprehension.

- A very strong positive correlation ($r = .977^{**}$) between reading strategy instruction and proficiency in text comprehension suggests that the more the reading strategy instruction, the better the proficiency in text comprehension. With a view to the found correlation, it can be proposed that learners' high level of proficiency in text comprehension might be the outcome of reading strategy instruction or training being provided to them by their teachers.

- The strong positive correlation between pre-reading and while-reading instruction, between pre-reading and post-reading instruction, and between while-reading and post-reading instruction proves the interdependence of all types of reading strategies. This implies that using pre-reading strategies might automatically facilitate the use of reading or post reading strategies, and for using post reading strategies the reader might naturally need to depend upon pre-reading or while reading strategies and so on.

- A very strong positive correlation between each type of reading strategy instruction (i.e. pre-reading, while-reading and post-reading instruction) and reading proficiency also depicts the interrelationship between each type of reading strategy and reading proficiency.

The findings of the present paper stand in layer with Brown and Palincsar's (1984) studies which had experimentally proved that native English speakers' reading ability can be improved through direct instruction of reading strategies. The same was inferred through Song's (1998) implications of Brown and Palincsar's (1984) study on non-native English speakers in classroom settings. Moreover, Bair (2005) had also shown that explicit instruction of reading strategies can enhance reading performance.

VI. RECOMMENDATIONS

At the end, the study reveals that making ESL learners proficient in reading comprehension skills is not as difficult a task as it is considered to be. What is needed is to provide an explicit reading strategies instruction to them. The findings of the study have also demonstrated that the quality of teaching and learning of reading comprehension skills in English department at The Islamia University of Bahawalpur is admirable. The teachers are teaching various kinds of reading strategies to the learners and the learners are highly proficient in reading comprehension.

In this particular scenario, following recommendations can be put forward to improve the quality of ESL reading as a basic part of ESL teaching and learning.

- The teachers should teach all types of reading strategies (cognitive strategies, memory strategies, compensation strategies and test taking strategies) to their students. They should assign them various reading tasks both inside and outside classroom settings in order to provide them opportunities to practically apply these strategies in reading.

- The teachers should have a thorough knowledge of all possible types of reading strategies and also about how, when, where and why to use these strategies. This is essential for the teachers in order to be able to practice such knowledge properly in their reading instruction. Here teacher training programs can be helpful.

- The students should be provided a direct and explicit instruction about the nature and use of reading strategies. During their reading lessons they should consciously be made aware of the titles and the effectiveness of the strategies being used at various stages of the lesson. In any reading lesson, everything at the instruction (i.e. presentation), practice and production stages should be made explicit, direct and obvious to the students.

- Instruction and practice of reading strategies should be provided and implemented to such an extent that the students automatically become independent readers and be able to select and use the appropriate strategies at appropriate places quite independently during their reading tasks. This can be carried out firstly by teaching them various reading strategies and then, assigning them reading comprehension tasks in the classroom with certain predefined reading purpose. Once they complete their reading task, the teacher should ask them what strategies they used while reading, and where, when, why and how they used such strategies.

VII. SUGGESTIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

The present research investigated the teaching and learning practices and implications of ESL reading comprehension skills in The Islamia University of Bahawalpur. So the results obtained should better be generalized only to the university level institutes and their relevant population alone. If the data were collected from college students instead of university graduates of Bahawalpur, the findings might not necessarily have been the same. This probability paves ground for a further research which should aim to investigate the status of and approaches to teaching and learning practices of reading comprehension skills in degree colleges of Bahawalpur, and hence to expose if there exists any

differences in the current practices of reading comprehension skills among college and university institutes, and that in case there exists any such difference, what are their causes.

Moreover, a great number of researches in Pakistan have explored and determined the differences between educational practices of the government and those of the private institutes in different aspects of Language teaching. The same can be carried out in the matter of ESL reading comprehension skills. The proposed research in this context should be comparative in nature. This research would aim to compare or contrast the state of and approaches to teaching and learning of reading comprehension skills in both private and government institutes of Bahawalpur or any other district in Pakistan. The explored comparisons might lead to various theoretical, descriptive, practical and suggestive results in favour of promoting better ESL reading comprehension skills in Pakistan.

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Learning Devices Development on Descriptive Writing for Foreign Language Based on Berlo's SMCR Communication Model of Secondary School Student

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Abstract—This research and development study aims to develop a product in the form of German descriptive writing learning device based on SMCR Berlo communication for Senior High school. The study procedure follows the first the phases of Thiagrajan 4-D Development Stage: (1) defining Stage; (2) designing Stage; (3) developing stage; (4) disseminating stage. This research involved senior secondary school teachers and students during the defining and developing phases. Besides, experts were involved during the validation of the product. The newly developed learning devices consist of 1) lesson plan, 2) teaching materials/student's book, 3) teacher's handbook, 4) students' worksheet, and 5) learning result test. Quality of the learning device is considered from three aspects namely: validity, practicability, and effectiveness. Validity of the learning device is based on the result of the try-outs including the students' German descriptive texts.

Index Terms—German language, descriptive writing, learning device, Berlo's SMCR communication model

I. INTRODUCTION

The need for authentic and meaningful learning materials for everyday students' life and the optimal use of multimedia is a must. In fact, this is supported by the orientation of education in Indonesia that has begun to shift to life skills orientation. The content-based curriculum that was previously to competency-based, school-level curriculum has finally been changed to 2013 character-based curriculum. Consequently, the school is required to improve its quality standards of good management and its human resources in order to create civilized people with all desired good characters synergizing with the community.

Competent teachers can produce quality of education through varied classroom instructional processes. Lack of understanding of the conditions and potentials of the students and the reluctance to continue renewing their competencies might become some of the factors restricting the success of teaching. The learning process should provide an opportunity for the students to fully explore, and engage in logical, holistic, objective and creative thinking. A consequence of the low quality of the teachers is likelihood of not achieving the best possible condition for each student to learn or to achieve the desired learning objective.

Foreign language learning context, especially Germany in Indonesia is not conducive. Exposure the German language outside of school classroom is very rare. The presence of native speakers whom the students may use the language is very scary. Besides, German can hardly see around the student's environment. Such contexts certainly limit the use of the language that the students have learned at schools in the real life outside the classroom. Hadley (1993) states that the study and practice in the context that the meaning is more effective than isolated learning through memory and repetition (p. 290).

Among the four language skills of listening, speaking, reading and writing, is a skill that considered the most difficult for most students, including writing in their mother tongue Indonesian. Students often have difficulty in positing their ideas into the target language because they are not accustomed to expressing ideas based on their sensual experiences (sight, hearing, smell, taste, and touching) in writing. Presumably, they will be able to overcome their difficulties in

writing when they learn to write through a process that involves all their senses. This may also increase their interest and motivation to develop their writing skills.

As described above, therefore, writing skill became the focus of research in order to get an overview of descriptive writing learning process holistically. The author conducted the research by using development or Research and Development (R &D).

Power and Hubbard (1992) define writing as a communication media of someone to himself and other people in a different time and place. It means that, if someone writes then he tries to express his intention or message in a written form in a different time and place with his writing (p. 68-69). It is language skill used to communicate indirectly. It is not faced to face with other people.

Writing is a productive and expressive activity. In this writing activity, a writer must be competent in utilizing graphology, language structure, and vocabulary. This writing skill will not be mastered automatically, but it requires test, and lot of routine practices (Tarigan, 2008, p. 19)

Hamsa (2008) defines learning to write as a system has some components. As a system, the position of the components are interrelated and mutually supporting each other. Each of the component's interact and work together in order to achieve the goal of learning to write, which has the competence to pour the ideas, thoughts, and information written by using proper and correct grammar (p. 29). Further, Brown (2001) defines it as the acquisition of knowledge or skills through learning, experience, and instruction. Learning is a change in tendency in permanent Act that is the result of reinforcement (p. 337).

Hadley (1993) defines some purposes of learning to write in the classroom, including 1) to support other language skills especially for assigning grammatical and vocabulary mastery, 2) to assist the students in writing for a variety of purposes such as communicating ideas, feelings and attitudes, 3) to guide the students to understand and develop writing skills as a rhetorical strategy with specific discourse and 4) to empower cognitive capabilities of the students enable them to solve problems (p. 293-294).

Writing as a process comprising stages, namely: planning, writing drafts, responding, revising, editing, evaluating, and publishing the final stages of writing. The stages according to Richards (2003) may be random and not necessarily sequential (p. 315).

Sometimes stages of drafting can be affected by the planning and revision stages can be the formulation stage of writing, or vice versa. This means that the writing process is a series of work related and affected each other. Writing begins with the planning stage. This stage is carried out through various activities that strive to arouse the interest of students to write. The second stage is drafting. Students begin to focus on the smooth writing without seeing their grammatical errors. The next stage is to respond to students' writing. The next stage is revision and editing, followed by assessment and publication.

The Teaching/learning material is one of the factors that determine the success of the learning process of students. According to Richards and Renandya (2003), an effective learning material should meet the needs of the students and the teachers. Learning materials can be adapted according to the contexts and needs of the students. They add that good teaching materials reflect a variety of things, for example, language learning materials should be functional and contextual. (p. 84-88)

The teaching/ learning material may be in the form of printed material such as books and paper work, non-printed materials such as tapes, videos, computer-based material, and the combined material between the printed and non-printed materials including materials on the internet. For the students, the teaching material is the main source of representation contact between the students and the teachers. Therefore, the role and use of learning materials in the language learning program, especially in learning to write, is a significant aspect that should get special emphasis.

There are two important aspects that should be taken into account in learning to write or writing instruction, i.e. communication aspects and aspects of language precision. These are the aspects that are often considered in measuring the students' writing as suggested by Bolton (1995). The communication aspect includes contents such as principal thoughts to be communicated and the forms including writing systematicity, cohesion and coherence. The aspects of language precision consist of (1) selected words: the proper word choice, correct usage of word meaning, and phrases, (2) morphology: correct word formation, (3) syntax: use correct use of patterns of phrases and sentences, and (4) orthography: the writing of words, punctuation, uppercase and lowercase letters, and correct spelling (Bolton, 1995, p. 132-136).

In a writing class, learning/teaching materials are very important. In order for the students to be motivated and interested in learning to write, the Berlo's communication model may apply to develop the writing learning devices. The models involve all sense as the channel for the messages to be conveyed. The SMCR model of communication proposed by David K Berlocan is seen in the following figure:

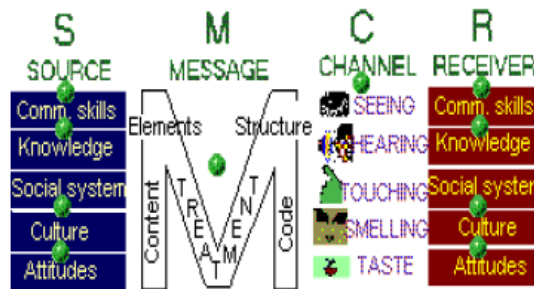


Figure 1. Berlo's SMCR Model of Communication

Description of an item or object may be better communicated when using all the senses. Most aspects of the subjects can be described, i.e. how it looks like (seeing), how it sounds (hearing), how it feels (touching), how it tastes (tasting), and how it smells (smelling). It is assumed that writing materials which require the students' senses when practicing writing may lead the students to write quality descriptive texts. Hence, learning takes place and communication will be effective.

The present study is an R & D research which focuses on the development of instructional kits for improving the German descriptive writing skills of the students. The instructional kits to be developed consist of teaching materials, students' work activity/activity sheets, teacher's guide, and lesson plans which are based on Berlo's SMCR communication model.

II. METHODOLOGY

This R & D research proceeded following the steps in Thiagarajan, Semmel and Semmel, known as 4-D (defines, design, develop, and disseminate) as follows:

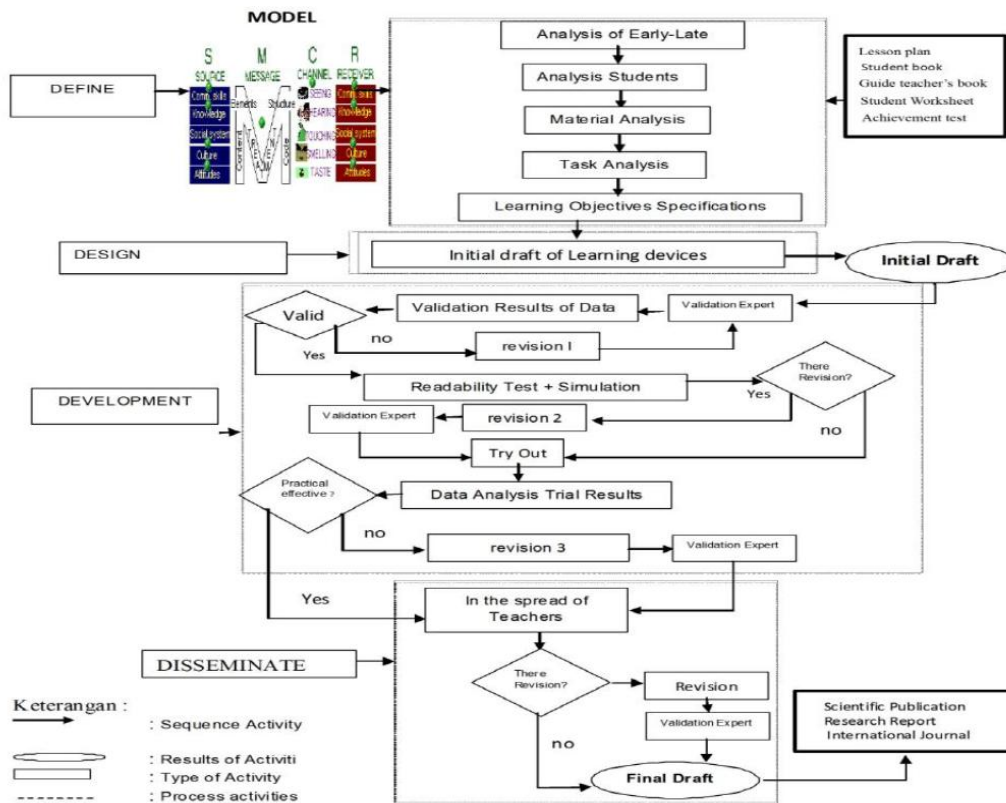


Figure 2. Modifications of Learning Tool 4-D Thiagarajan

III. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

A. Result

The results of the study are presented following the stages of the 4D development model: defining, designing, developing, and disseminating.

Defining Phase

During this phase, an analysis was carried out based on information obtained from the senior secondary school teachers and students. Besides, the available learning materials, learning objectives, and learning tasks currently in use were also reviewed. Following in the results of the analysis and reviews:

1. Information of senior secondary school teachers

Based on the discussions with the German language teachers at public senior secondary school (SMAN 4), Bantimurung Maros, it is found that the teachers of German in their language-learning activities in the school use conventional learning strategies. The teachers not understand well the methods of teaching and learning that may be effective, and this may have resulted in an interaction in the learning process particularly in the development of German writing skills which are not running optimally. Their student does not yet have the ability to write basic German language well; this poor condition will positively hamper the achievement of learning outcomes of students' writing skills, especially in writing a descriptive of German texts.

2. Information of the Students

The students participated in this study were Class XII students of SMAN 4 Bantimurung Maros academic year 2012/2013 consisting of 24 students randomly selected from the six classes that took the subject of German. In the analysis, the researcher found out the background knowledge; the language used, and the level of cognitive development of students.

3. Material Currently in use by the teachers and students

The purpose of this review was to identify, specify, and develop materials that the students learned, and then the materials were arranged and organized appropriately. For example, the material was about Hobby und Freizeit as identified in the content standards. The outline of the material in this study is presented in the following figure:

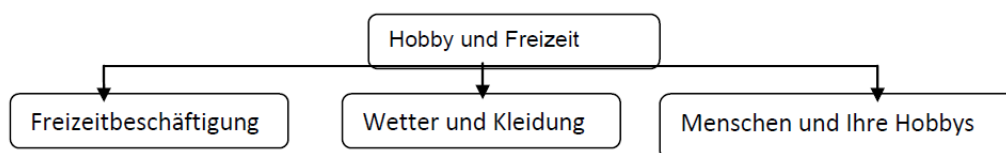


Figure 3. Material elaboration of Hobby and Freizeit

4. Task Analysis

The results of the learning task analysis for the topic Freizeit / Hobby in this study are as follows: 1) Write words, phrases, sentences, and simple dialogue about the sub-theme Freizeitbeschäftigung, 2) Connect parts of a sentence and write the words that match the text in the reading passage, 3) Determine appropriate vocabulary in context in the sub-theme Freizeitbeschäftigung, 4) Writing words, phrases/sentences and simple dialogue about the sub-theme Kleidung Wetter und Kleidung in der Freizeit, 5) Determine the use of conjunction's weil Präsens in sentences appropriately, 6) Practice simple phrases in context, 7) Arrange sentences into discourse, 8) Read the text and then write a descriptive essay based on context, and 9) Specify the command line usage, regular and irregular verbs, accusative object, negation and verb capital "Mogen" with appropriate context.

5. Review of learning objectives

This review was intended to formulate or reformulate all learning objectives related to the selected topics. The existing goal and basic competencies became the basis for writing indicators of the learning objectives achievement. All the indicators were used as reference for the preparation of the materials on Freizeit/hobbies and the designing of all learning tools for this study.

Designing Phase

This stage aims at designing a prototype of the learning devices. The results of the designing phase consist of five learning tools, namely Lesson Plan (RPP), Student's Book, Teacher's Guide Book, Student Worksheet, Test Results and Learning. Learning devices in the design phase (design) is called the initial draft. The results of each activity in the design phase are described as follows:

1. Test Preparation

Preparation of the test is based on the analysis of the material and analysis tasks outlined in the indicators of achievement. The test in question is the achievement test on the material avocation / hobby. Achievement test was developed in the form of essays.

2. Media selection

The media selection is conducted to determine the proper media in the presentation of the subject matter to write based communication model Berlo SMCR. Media selection process adapted to the analysis of materials, task analysis, and characteristics of students as well as the standards of competence and basic competencies. From the results of this media selection, determined that the instructional media needed include: (a) the board, (b) markers, (c) eraser, (d) LCD, (e) Video, (f) Laptop, and (g) Speaker.

3. Format selection

The format selection as a learning device aims to select or design a format for designing learning devices, the selection of strategies, approaches, methods of teaching and learning resources. The contents of the learning device prepared in accordance with the principles, characteristics and measure's communication models Berlo SMCR. In general, the format of learning is described as follows:

a. Lehrvorbereitung (Lesson Plan)

Lesson Plan is designed based on the communication model Berlo SMCR procedures and organizational measures of learning separately to achieve the stated goals. The steps are performed in the preparation of lesson plans namely: (1) determine the allocation of time, (2) determine SK, KD, and indicators of achievement, (3) formulate learning objectives based SK, KD, and indicators that have been defined, (4) identify teaching materials based on the subject matter, (5) determine the learning method to be used, (6) formulate learning steps consisting of initial activities, core activities, and the final activity, (7) determine the source and medium of learning required. Based on this lesson plan developed includes the following components: a standard of competence, basic competence, indicators of achievement, learning objectives, learning materials Berlo SMCR model of communication. Based on the material scope craze / hobbies, the RPP is made for three (3) meetings that have allocated time each 2 x 45 minutes.

b. Kursbuch (Learning Material)

Learning materials developed in learning the German language writing is based on communication model Berlo SMCR for freizeit/hobby materials. It is presented by using the channel: seeing, hearing, touching, smelling, tasting. Characteristics that distinguish teaching materials designed based communication model Berlo's SMCR with other teaching materials is the existence of directives that facilitate students in constructing their own knowledge based on the five senses at every stage of the material presented. Components consist of teaching materials: basic competencies, indicators, independent exercises, auditory media and literature that are the end of the teaching materials.

c. Lehrhandbuch (Teachers' Handbook)

Teacher manual developed for writing skills-based model of communication SMCR Berlo contains Number of each section and chapter in the books students, implementing the material in the classroom with senses: seeing, hearing, touching, smelling, tasting, alternatively answer the questions contained in the books students.

d. Arbeitsbuch (Student Worksheet)

At this stage the Arbeitsbuch developed as much as 3 pieces of communication model and designed in the converted from Berlo SMCR model of communication material on Berlo SMCR. Arbeitsbuch also contains instructions that accompanied the empty space as a place for students to write down their answers as the solution of any contextual problem. Arbeitsbuch component includes: instructions, contextual issues that come with channel: seeing, hearing, touching, smelling, tasting as a symbol in the model of communication SMCR Berlo and empty spaces as a place best student. Through the use of Arbeitsbuch, expected to be helpful in understanding the lessons and improve the skills of students in writing a language in Germany significantly.

e. Test des Lernergebnis (Learning outcomes)

Teacher manual developed for writing skills-based model of communication SMCR Berlo contains: Number of each section and chapter f). Test des Lernegebnis (the Test Results).

The writing skills test is organized based on the theory of adaptation evaluation writing skills as well as paying attention to the teaching goals Bolton to write language-based communication model Germany SMCR Berlo which includes thoughts or opinions in writing in the language of Germany is communicative. According to Bolton indicators assessed in writing ability are as follows: (1) the communicative aspects: (a) content (theme which is communicated entirely), (b) the form (Systematic of writing, cohesion and coherence), (2) aspects of the precision of the language: (a) diction (selection of the right word), (b) morphology formation of words correctly, (c) syntax (the use of patterns of phrasing and sentences correctly, upper and lower, and the correct spelling).

Development Phase

The purpose of this stage is to produce a draft revised learning devices based on the input of experts and data obtained from test results and readability data. Activities performed at this stage are the assessment of experts, readability tests, simulations and tests in class XII high school. The respective activities at this stage are described as follows:

1. Expert Assessment

After all the initial drafts studies are completed at the stage of design, an assessment is validated by some experts. The experts in question in this case are the competent validator to conduct an assessment of the learning tool. Advice from the validator is used as an object to make a revision for the development phase. Generally the validation experts consist of:

a. the content of the study, whether the content of the material as well as in accordance with the learning objectives to be measured (the validation material),

b. Language: (1) whether the sentence on the device using suitable language learning the rules of German language? (2) Whether the sentences on learning devices do not cause the double interpretation?

2. The readability Test and lesson plan simulation.

The developed initial draft of the devices, the observation sheet and student response made test for readability and lesson plan simulation. The purpose of this activity is to obtain input device of all learning and student response that can

now be read and clearly understood and can be implemented in the field. This activity is carried out on some of the following activities:

a. Researchers determine one groups of study consisting of 24 students. They were taken four students from six German language learning classroom grade XII SMA Negeri 4 Bantimurung Maros regency randomly. Selection of subjects is done with attention to the heterogeneity of students.

b. All students are required to read the entire contents of the book: students, Students' worksheet, Test Results and Student Response for Questionnaire Sheet. After that they were asked to deliver when there are words or sentences that they cannot understand.

c. The two candidates of observer were asked to read the observation sheet about ability of the teachers to manage learning, the student activities, observation sheets and observation device implementation (as much as one person). After that, they were asked to convey things that they could not understand the meaning. While other observer candidates are asked to read: teachers guide, learning implementation plan, and Test Results Sheet, and Student Worksheet, and then they are asked to convey things that are not clear or expected.

d. Researchers conduct a simulated toward one or two lessons plans in class XII, while the two candidates for the observer has been appointed to act as an observer.

e. Researchers conduct the revision of learning devices; observation sheet and questionnaire form for student response based on input from previous activities.

3. Testing of Learning Device

Testing of learning device in the field aims to obtain data or input from teachers, students and observers toward all of the learning that have been compiled as a basis for revision of the learning tool.

Dissemination Phase

The resulting device on the development phase will be further disseminated or socialized to a limited extent in Germany language teacher SMA Negeri 4 Bantimurung Maros regency. Dissemination of the results is obtained some suggestions, and they are used for revising the initial draft to the final draft. The suggestions from the participants are as follows:

1. Berlo SMCR model of communication Development is presented in the Kursbuch and Arbeitsbuch is preferably tailored to students' cognitive.

2. Learning Tool developed in the Berlo SMCR model of communication approach should not only be used on one Germany-Language skill.

B. Discussion

The achievement of research objectives that were elaborated is how far the planned research objectives are achieved. This achievement is associated with the availability of early learning device based on Berlo's SMCR Model of communication, in which in the second and third year will be developed to examine its validity, effectiveness, and practicability.

The intended specific findings in this chapter are findings which were discovered during early arrangement of learning device of writing based on Berlo's SMCR model of communication, particularly for the condition of students who become the subject of this research.

A visit to the location of the research had been conducted several times for a variety of purposes such as observing the research location, socializing of teaching model to the Headmaster and the teachers, holding discussions with the teachers, especially to those who teach German language.

Based on these observations, information obtained was that students have taught language subject since they are in the X, XI to XII grade. It is conducted because German language subject is an important subject to learn. Characteristics that distinguish between German writing learning device based on Berlo's SMCR model of communication and German language learning device that has existed before are portrayed as follow:

a. Syllabus and lesson Plan

Syllabus and lesson plan designing for German language writing skills are based on the learning phases. They aim to describe a procedure in organizing learning to achieve one basic competence which is established in the competence standard. The committed steps follow learning phases that are based on Berlo's SMCR communication. If it is compared with syllabus and lesson plan that exist before, syllabus and lesson plan based on communication model are still lack used in schools especially in the school in which this research conducted. Characteristics that distinguish between the syllabus and lesson plan for Berlo's SMCR model of communication and the existing syllabus and lesson plan are as follow:

1) In Berlo's SMCR model of communication, the syllabus and lesson plan is actively expected to construct students' own knowledge, and the teacher is just to facilitate, guide, and motivate them in constructing their knowledge. Whereas, the existing syllabus and lesson plan are presented by conventional way,

2) In Berlo's SMCR model of communication, Syllabus and lesson plan focus on the students learning completeness. Whereas existing syllabus and lesson plan concern to the material completeness of each meeting.

b. Kursbuch (teaching material)

This kursbuch can be used whether in the learning process of the class or autodidact. Kursbuch that has been designed for German language writing skill is in the form of a combination between materials innovatively and giving

symbols of channel: seeing, hearing, touching, smelling, and tasting. Moreover, this kursbuch is also completed with pictures and illustration that can guide students to understand the concept that presented inside it which differentiate it from other kursbuch.

c. Arbeitsbuch (Students' worksheet)

Arbeitsbuch is a guide for students used to find a concept or procedure by constructing their own knowledge. This Arbeitsbuch characteristic contains a group of questions which guide students in writing based Berlo's SMCR communication model with the instructions of symbols from the channel: seeing, hearing, touching, smelling, and tasting and completed with a blank sheet for students to write down their answers.

The constructed Arbeitsbuch on the German writing skills based on Berlo's SMCR model of communication concern Arbeitsbuch arrangement purposes. The purposes are: (1) integrating all of the channel: seeing, hearing, touching, smelling, and tasting as a place and symbols which then guide students in utilizing all of their sense aspects in working every question that are presented inside it. (2) Stimulating students to utilize all the aspect of sense based on their experience and express it German language compose, so the students are more motivated to learn and believe more to the answer that they get.

d. Lehrhandbuch (guidebook)

Lehrhandbuch that is designed for German language skills writing material based-Berlo's SMCR communication model is a guidebook for teachers in the teaching and learning process that contains about the implementation of Berlo's SMCR communication model, learning concept and alternative answer of every problem. It differentiates Lehrhandbuch that becomes the earlier design from teachers' handbook that has existed.

IV. CONCLUSION AND SUGGESTION

A. Conclusion

Based on the results achieved as has been described above, the researchers take some conclusions as follows:

1. Teachers need to pay attention to communication elements in writing especially for teaching of German language.
2. Learning devices development on descriptive writing based on Berlo's SMCR communication model need to be implemented.
3. Learning devices consist of lesson plan, students' textbook, teachers' handbook, students' worksheets and the learning test outcomes.

B. Suggestion

The results of this research provide implications to various parties, so it is recommended to:

1. The development of Science

The results of this research show that the model of communication skill enhancement in Berlo's SMCR model in the writing German for descriptive texts language in Senior High School, either from conceptual or practice side possesses feasibility to be implemented in the process of German language learning.

2. Problem Solving of Education

Process of German language learning still tends to use grammatical method that is oriented to the left-brain development and lack to the right-brain function development. Through the implementation of Berlo's SMCR model in which communication elements are functioned optimally so it can improve German descriptive writing capability because components in this SMCR model are able to equalize the way of the both brain work. Therefore, teachers of German language subject to be able to apply this Berlo's SMCR model to the writing descriptive text.

3. Institutional development

This research result is highly recommended being considered or become an inspiration in improving German language writing skills particularly for the Department of Foreign Language Education/Germany. Thus, it is expected to pay the attention to the elements and components of communication in the process of teaching and learning.

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Enhancing Listening Performance through Schema Construction Activities

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Abstract—“A schema is a general term for a conventional knowledge structure that exists in memory” (Yule, 2006, p. 132). There however still has been a controversy over the role of schema construction activities as an aid to L2 listening learning. This research thus aims to examine the effect of schema construction activities on EFL learners’ listening performance at Saigon Technology University (STU).

Index Terms—schema, listening performance, English as a Foreign Language (EFL), Vietnam

I. INTRODUCTION

Teachers tend to overlook the process of helping students learn to listen (Vandergrift, 2004). Moreover, both language teachers and learners have propensity to ignore the magnitude of listening comprehension skill since their attention is fixed so completely on their ultimate goal, speaking (Chastain, 1988, p. 192). Furthermore, from Vandergrift’s (2004) standpoint, “listening is probably the least explicit of the four macro language skills, making it the most difficult skill to learn” (p. 3). In a similar vein, Khanh (2006) contends that “listening has always been presumed to be the most difficult and boring skill to practice” (p. 51). Buck (2001) discerns several difficulties which can be confronted in listening tasks such as unknown words, unfamiliar topics, fast speech rate, and strange accents. Do’s (2007) study divulges that “teachers concentrate on presenting vocabulary and structures so much that they may not have enough time to organize other necessary activities or they cannot recognize the importance of the other ones” (p. 115). Presenting some new words to students before listening is to some extent indispensable. Nonetheless, the question is how teachers present them to students. Should the teacher himself/herself introduce new words students are going to listen to while all students are receiving these new words passively? Or should the teacher give students chances or tasks through which they themselves can retrieve previous knowledge in their mind to learn new words actively? Should students be considered as an active processor who brings their prior knowledge to the context of listening text?

Shu (2009) highlights that “traditionally, in language teaching, listening comprehension used to be thought of as a passive skill. Like reading, listening comprehension is now no longer regarded as a passive skill. The decoding of a message calls for active participation in communication between participants” (p.133). Nevertheless, students tend not to be active in their learning to listen, but depend passively on the instruction of teachers (Vandergrift, 2004). This should be changed since Harden and Dent (2005) insist that “the purpose of teaching is to facilitate learning” (p. 209). Do (2007) underscores that “teachers should improve their ways of performing the first stage in order to make their students well-prepared for their listening” (p. 115). As usual, teachers get accustomed to the traditional lecture method, which is “a passive, one-way method of transferring information” (Sullivan and McIntosh, 1996, p. 1) and “lecturing is frequently a one-way process unaccompanied by discussion, questioning or immediate practice, which makes it a poor teaching method” (McIntosh, 1996, p. 1 cited in Sullivan and McIntosh, 1996, p. 1). Furthermore, “lack of interaction is considered one of the major limitations of the traditional lecture” (Munson, 1992 cited in Sullivan and McIntosh, 1996, p. 1). Indeed, preponderance of the students in Do’s (2007) research alleged that “the solution that teachers should improve their methods of teaching listening skill is more essential than the solution that the school should equip more facilities for listening practice” (p. 122). More crucially, Edlich (1993, cited in Sullivan and McIntosh, 1996) argues that “the lecture format for large classes is outdated and ineffective” (p. 1).

It is urgent for both EFL teachers and EFL learners to change their mind to have more appropriate teaching methods and learning styles in listening classrooms so that there would be no longer the phenomenon that “teachers were attempting to teach them only the pertinent information that they would need to pass a test” (McMahon, Lytle and Smith, 2005, p. 180). Do (2007) also writes that “it seems that the teachers only tried to cover the listening tasks in the textbook with a focus on linguistic content, and the students pretended to listen by ‘picking up’ as many answers from

teachers as possible” (p. 124). Hoang’s (2006) findings reveal that teachers still thought pre-listening and post-listening phases are of little magnitude and that

“consequently, when teaching listening, they just played the cassette tape, asked the learners to listen and then checked answers without any pre-listening activities. It is likely that with this way of teaching, these teachers think that listening is the easiest skill to teach” (p. 85).

A potential remedy to the above drawback is the application of a variety of schema construction activities which render listening classes more enjoyable and especially immerse learners in their own listening learning. Long (1987) contends that activities in pre-listening and post-listening phases play a crucial role in facilitating EFL learners’ listening learning since these activities provide the learners with chances to utilize their schemata, what they have already known before, to learn and build new knowledge or new schemata. From Mendelsohn’s (1995, cited in Mendelsohn and Rubin, 1995) view, pre-listening activities need “to activate the students’ existing knowledge of the topic in order for them to link this to what they comprehend and to use this as a basis of their prediction and inferencing” (p. 124). Listening learning will be enhanced if learners generate meaning by activating existing knowledge (Goh, 2002). Nguyen’s (2009) research demonstrates that schema construction is “an essential approach to link new information in the topic to the students’ prior knowledge to activate the students’ interest and curiosity in reading comprehension” (p. 66) and it may work for listening comprehension. Hoang (2006) adds that the lack of practicing bottom-up or top-down processing will hinder learners from listening effectively. The role of students thus needs to be changed “from passive observer to active participants” (Sullivan and McIntosh, 1996, p. 2). Brown (1990) also hopes that “active listeners will use all relevant background knowledge” (p. 11) for learning listening in particular and acquiring second language in general.

There however still has been a controversy over the role of schema construction activities as an aid to L2 listening learning. Some studies indicated that schema construction facilitated learning process of L2 listeners (Schmidt-Rinehart, 1994; Brown and Smith, 2007). In contrast, some studies reported that schema construction tasks did not improve listening comprehension (Chiang and Dunkel, 1992; Jensen and Hansen, 1995). This research thus aims to investigate the effects of schema construction activities on EFL learners’ listening performance.

It is crucial to investigate influential factors to learners’ systematic learning in the classroom (Slavin, 2008; van Merriënboer & Kirshner, 2007). This research aims to examine the effect of schema construction activities on EFL learners’ listening performance at Saigon Technology University (STU). The empirical research was guided by the ensuing research question:

How do schema construction activities enhance EFL learners’ listening performance?

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

This chapter commences with a review of the two constructs “listening” and “schema” pursued by review on benefits of schema construction on language learning as the major theoretical framework for the study. Findings of empirical studies on the linkage between schema construction and listening comprehension are succinctly displayed.

A. *Listening*

Listening is “the means to immediate oral production” (Anderson and Lynch, 1988, p. 64). From From Rubin and Mendelsohn’s (1995) standpoint, listening is “an active process in which a listener selects and interprets information which comes from auditory and visual clues in order to define what is going on and what the speakers are trying to express” (p. 151). Buck (2001) maintains that “listening involves both linguistic and non-linguistic knowledge” (p. 247). Linguistic knowledge indicates “knowledge of phonology, lexis, syntax, semantics, discourse structure, pragmatics and sociolinguistics”, whereas non-linguistic refers to “knowledge of the topic, the context and general knowledge about the world and how it works” (ibid, p. 247). Furthermore, listening is deemed to be synonymous with ‘experiencing contextual effects’, namely, ‘listening as a neurological event (experiencing)’ overlays a cognitive event (creating a change in a representation) (Rost, 2002, p. 3). As a recap of above views on listening, Jeon (2007) writes:

“Listening has been characterized as a set of activities that involves an individual’s capacity to apprehend, recognize, discriminate, or even ignore certain information. It has also been considered to contain complex and active processes that are involved in linguistic knowledge, personal expectation, cognitive processing skills, and world knowledge. Listening involves interaction and negotiation with a speaker and requires prior experience of a listener to best understand and interpret what a speaker says” (p. 50).

B. *Schema*

1. **Definitions and typologies of schema**

“A schema is a general term for a conventional knowledge structure that exists in memory” (Yule, 2006, p. 132). Schemas are defined as “building blocks of cognition” (Rumelhart, 1980, p. 34) and “skeleton around which the situation is interpreted” (Rumelhart, 1980, p. 37). In the same vein, Taylor and Crocker (1981, p. 91) view a schema as “a cognitive structure that consists in part of the representation of some defined stimulus domain. The schema contains general knowledge about that domain, including a specification of the relationships among its attributes, as well as specific examples or instances of the stimulus domain” and “the schema provides hypothesis about incoming stimuli,

which include plans for interpreting and gathering schema-related information". Likewise, Brewer and Nakamura (1984) underscore that "schemas are the unconscious cognitive structures that underlie human knowledge and skill" (p. 136). Myhill, Jones and Hopper (2006, p. 21) also deem schema as 'the mental map' or set of mental connections we had in our head about a particular idea of thing.

Carrell (1983) categorizes schemata into two typologies – content schemata and formal schemata. The former denotes "background information" on the topic and the latter refers to "knowledge about how discourse is organized with respect to different genres, different topics, or different purposes (e.g., transactional versus interactional), including relevant sociocultural knowledge" (Celce-Murcia and Olshtain, 2000, p. 102). From Juan and Flor's (2006) view, "content schema are networks of knowledge on different topics and formal schema are derived from our knowledge of the structure of discourse is being listened to make it easier to engage in top-down processing strategies, such as predicting and inferencing" (p. 93).

2. Moving patterns of schema

"Schemata are abstract cognitive constructs where knowledge is processed, stored and activated" (Hui, 2005, p. 18). Numerous researchers thus have applied theory of schema to their research on reading and speech. Xie (2005) writes that

"Modern schema theorists believe that schema, a data structure of general structure of general ideas stored in memory, consists of variables and slots. According to such a principle, meaning exists neither in oral nor in written language itself, but in the reader's mind, depending on the activation of his or her brain schemata whose controlling structure or basic moving pattern is navigated through bottom-up data-driven-processing and top-down concept-driven-processing" (p. 67).

He also adds that "top-down processing facilitates the assimilation of new information into the information already stored" (p. 68). Cognitive psychologists indeed share the view that all prior knowledge of a person was stored in the cognitive structures of the brain. Thus, prior knowledge has to be activated within these structures through an introductory instructional strategy so that new knowledge can be acquired. From bottom-up and top-down perspectives, Rost (2001) maintains that "listening involves 'bottom-up' processing, in which listeners attend to data in the incoming speech signals, and 'top-down' processing, in which listeners utilize prior knowledge and expectations to create meaning" (p. 7). Vandergrift (2004) further discuss that

"listeners use top-down processes when they use context and prior knowledge (topic, genre, and other schema knowledge in long-term memory) to build a conceptual framework for comprehension; listeners use bottom-up processes when they construct meaning by accretion, gradually combining increasingly larger units of meaning from the phoneme-level up to discourse-level features" (p. 4).

It is crucial for listeners to learn how to implement these processes effectively for different listening aims. There is a consensus that "bottom-up processing is applied to gather information on phonology, lexis, syntax and grammar to build up an understanding of what is perceived. Top-down processing, however, makes use of previous knowledge and experience (schema) to predict, filter, analyze and interpret the information received" and "top-down processing emphasizes the importance of listener's background knowledge" (Nunan, 2007, p. 32).

C. Effects of Schema Construction

1. Schema activation and motivation

Brown (2000) maintains that "a listener will be successful with the proper motivation" (p. 143). "The motivation for listeners should be pleasure, interest and growing confidence at being able to understand the spoken language" (Byrne, 1976, p. 15). From Brown's (2006) view, "it is just as important to give the students the opportunity to use what they already know-their prior knowledge - to help them do the task," and "it really doesn't matter whether the words actually will appear in the listening task because activating prior knowledge, in addition to helping comprehension, motivates students by bringing their lives to the lesson" (p. 4).

Harden and Dent (2005) also contend that "it might be that the new material to be presented will need activation of more than one set of existing knowledge structures," which implies "pulling together previously acquired knowledge from several different areas of experience" (p. 207). This schema activation is thus "important in the learning experience that teachers need to consider much more carefully how to help learners prepare for the session and how to begin the session to ensure maximum readiness for the new material to be presented" (p. 207).

2. Schema construction and listening performance

"A schema is an individual's collection of prior knowledge that provides a context for meaningful interpretation of new information" (Anderson, 1984, cited in Hunt and Touzel, 2009, p. 57) and "schemas change with the accretion of new knowledge and the tuning and reconstruction of prior schemas" (Carlo and Edwards, 2005, p. 148).

Nunan (2007) allege that "comprehension relies on listeners' successful activation of their prior knowledge (schemata)" (p. 35). Likewise, Fitch and Hauser (1990, cited in Hargie, 1997) highlight that "another way of examining the acquisition of information in spoken messages may involve the use of schemas" (p. 245).

Comprehension is an interactive process between the learner and the material (Pichert, 2002). The listeners have the myriad sources of information which make listening comprehension easier (Rost, 2002). In other words, listening comprehension is influenced by the information that an individual has in the mind or from stores of memory; therefore,

schematic knowledge is overtly beneficial to listening comprehension and “relevant schemata must be activated” (Carrel, 1988, p. 105).

According to schema theory, listening entails “more or less simultaneous analysis at many different levels – from the textual levels of graphophonemic, morphemic, semantic, and syntactic features, to the experience-based levels of knowledge of specific content, pragmatics, and interpretive thinking” (Orasanu, 1986, p. 35). Edwards and McDonald (1993) highlight that “schema theory details how people store and use knowledge about a domain. The theory predicts what information people will select for memory storage, that information will be abstract, and that the information will be interpreted in light of existing knowledge and integrated into the existing network” (p. 60). The myth behind how listeners map new information to their existing schema during the listening process still has appealed to researchers’ interests.

O’Malley and Chamot (1989) observe that “listening comprehension is an active and conscious process in which the listener constructs meaning by using cues from contextual information and existing knowledge, while relying upon multiple strategic resources to fulfill the task requirement” (p. 420). Furthermore, “listening comprehension is regarded theoretically as an active process in which individuals concentrate on selected aspects of aural input, form meaning from passages, and associate what they hear with existing knowledge” (Fang, 2008, p. 22); thus, appropriate schemata need to be activated during text processing so as to facilitate efficient comprehension (Carrell and Eisterhold, 1983).

From a dynamic system theory (DST) perspective, Qiu and Huang’s (2012) research investigates the role of dynamic image schema (DIS) in improving the ESL learners’ listening comprehension. The research involved forty ESL students from two classes at an American university. Data encompassed the scores of pre- and post-listening comprehension tests, class notes from students, and responses to questionnaires. Research findings reveal the facilitating role of DIS in ESL students’ listening comprehension. According to Qiu and Huang (2012), “on the one hand, the construction of DIS allowed ESL learners to organize listening materials in the basic frameworks for systematically information processing; on the other hand, DIS helped to enhance ESL learners’ ability of refined sorting, categorizing, predicting, organizing, and analyzing information to reach meaningful re-configuration of knowledge and thus improve their listening comprehension” (p. 241).

Markham and Latham (1987) conducted their research to appraise the impact of religious-specific background knowledge on listening comprehension of adult ESL students (Jeon, 2007, p. 90). Sixty five ESL students who were classified as Muslim, Christian, and neutral, participated in the research. Its findings reveal that the “students adhering to a specific religious group recalled more ideas, and produced more appropriate elaborations and fewer inaccurate distortions regarding passages associated with their particular religion,” which denotes that “background knowledge does significantly influence ESL students’ listening comprehension” (Jeon, 2007, p. 90).

Long (1990) examines how background knowledge affects auditory comprehension in second language. Research data which was collated from 188 students taking a Spanish courses displays that “background knowledge could help L2 listening comprehension, and that linguistic knowledge played a prominent role in comprehension when apposite background knowledge was not available to L2 listeners” (Jeon, 2007, p. 92).

Sadighi and Zare’s (2002) research also found the impact of background knowledge on listening learning. EFL students from two TOEFL preparation classes took part in the empirical research. The experimental group obtained treatment in the form of topic familiarity, and their background knowledge was activated. Then a 50-item TOEFL test of listening comprehension was delivered to both experimental and control groups. Data analysis provides clues to corroborate the impact of prior knowledge on listening comprehension.

Jia’s (2010) study investigates the impact schema-activation has on word recognition during listening. Its findings reveal that, in comparison with the control group who does not activate relevant schema prior to listening, the schema activation experimental group not merely can recognize more words, but also can better discern words whose sounds are varied during speech stream, identify efficiently the word among the candidates containing a similar phoneme, and minimize the chances of refusing to accept a word due to its incompatibility with already-constructed interpretation.

Schmidt-Rinehart (1994) implemented an empirical study to examine if an interaction occurred between topical knowledge and L2 listening comprehension. Due to the unclear influence of background knowledge on listening comprehension when it involves L2 listening competence, she expanded Long’s (1990) research by adding proficiency level as a variable. The results garnered from ninety university students of Spanish classes of different levels of proficiency, taking immediate recall-protocols, exhibited that topic familiarity had effects on the scores of the recall measures and that there was a consistent increase in comprehension scores across the different levels.

The effect of prior knowledge was also examined by Jensen and Hasen (1995), who posited that students’ prior knowledge could bias the tests. After having studied the results of 128 university level L2 learners, they concluded that prior knowledge does not dramatically contribute to L2 listening comprehension, and that more investigation would be necessitated to investigate whether schematic knowledge really facilitates listening comprehension.

III. RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

A. *Research Design*

On the search journey for the answers to the research questions, experimental method with data collated through tests was utilized. An experiment, as Nunan (1992) defines, is “a procedure for testing a hypothesis by setting up a situation

in which the strength of the relationship between variables can be tested” (p. 230). Since the current study aims to examine the effects of schema-buiding activities on listening performance, an experiment was a logical approach. Schema-buiding activities were adopted in one class. The pretest and posttest scores of the students of this class were compared with those of the students of another class, in which there was no incorporation of schema-buiding activities. Notwithstanding that the classes were verified to be analogous in their listening proficiency level, they were not randomly assigned to groups of the experiment. This study is thus a quasi-experimental one. “A quasi-experiment has both pre- and posttests and experimental and control groups, but no random assignment of subjects” (*ibid*, p. 41). In a similar vein, Brown and Rodgers (2002) highlight that most second language studies have to be conducted with “already existing intact groups” and therefore “tend to be quasi-experimental rather than truly experimental” (p. 212). Table 1 displays instruments used in previous studies on schema and language skill acquisition.

TABLE 1.
INSTRUMENTS USED IN PREVIOUS STUDIES ON SCHEMA AND LANGUAGE SKILL ACQUISITION

Author(s)	Focus of the research	Instruments used
Hohzawa (1998)	Prior knowledge and listening comprehension	Experimentation with written recalled-protocol and comprehension test
Sadighi and Zare (2002)	Effect of background knowledge on listening learning	Experimentation with 50-item TOEFL test of listening comprehension
Ülper (2009)	Influence of the schematic structure of story texts as a visual strategy on listening comprehension	Experimentation with pretest and posttest
Hayati (2009)	Effect of cultural knowledge on listening comprehension	Experiment with listening pretest and posttest
Salahshuri (2011)	Effects of topic familiarity on the foreign language listening comprehension	Experiment with listening tests
Qiu and Huang (2012)	Effects of dynamic image schema (DIS) on ESL students’ systematic improvement of listening comprehension	Experimentation with pre- and post-tests, students’ class notes, and responses to survey questions
Farrokhi and Modarres (2012)	Impacts of pre-task activities on improvement of listening comprehension	Experimentation with TOEFL actual test
Hu (2012)	Schema Theory-based teaching mode of English listening	Two tests (pre-test and post-test) and a three-month teaching experiment

B. Subjects

The participants in the experiment were 101 first-year students among 435 students from Department of Business Administration at Saigon Technology University. They all take English as a compulsory subject. After these 435 students had taken the same pretest, the two classes D11_QT01 (49 students) and D11_QT04 (52 students) from nine first-year classes of Department of Business Administration at Saigon Technology University were chosen as control group and experimental group respectively since their students had nearly the same background and listening competence level. Certain attributes of the two groups are exhibited in Table 2 comprising the number of students, age, gender, place of high-school study, English learning length and studying at foreign language centers.

TABLE 2.
PROFILE OF STUDENTS IN CONTROL GROUP AND EXPERIMENTAL GROUP

Students’ profile	Control group (49 students)	Experimental group (52 students)
1. Age		
• 18	38 (77.55%)	41 (78.85%)
• 19	9 (18.37%)	8 (15.38%)
• 20	2 (4.08%)	3 (5.77%)
2. Gender		
• Male	17 (34.69%)	24 (46.15%)
• Female	32 (65.31%)	28 (53.85%)
3. Place of highschool		
• A city, a town	27 (55.10%)	24 (46.15%)
• A countryside, a mountainous area or a remote area	22 (44.90%)	28 (53.85%)
4. English learning length		
• Up to 3 years	0 (0.00%)	1 (1.92%)
• More than 3 years up to 7 years	30 (61.22%)	28 (53.85%)
• More than 7 years	19 (38.78%)	23 (44.23%)
5. Studying at a foreign language center		
• Yes	12 (24.49%)	8 (15.38%)
• No	37 (75.51%)	44 (84.62%)

The data from Table 2 shows certain similarities between the control group and experimental group in five variables.

Firstly, the number of students in both groups was practically similar, with 49 students in the control group and 52 students in the experimental group. The majority of the participants, 77.55% in the control group and 78.85% in the

experimental group, were at the age of 18 since they were full-time freshmen when the research was conducted. The percentages of students at 19 and 20 in both classes were virtually the same as well.

Secondly, the females of the two groups outnumbered the males. In the control group the percentages of females and males were 65.31% and 34.69% respectively while they were 53.85% and 46.15% in the experimental group.

Thirdly, in the control group, the number of students who obtained high school education in a city or a town exceeded that of students who obtained high school education in the countryside, mountainous area, or remote area. Nonetheless, in experimental group, the students studying in the countryside, mountainous or remote area outnumbered the students who studied in a city and a town.

Fourthly, as regards the students' English learning length, most of the students in both classes learned English from over 3 up to 7 years. The percentage of the students (44.23%) who had studied English over 7 years in the experimental group slightly outnumbered that (38.78%) in the control group.

Fifthly, a preponderance of the students in both classes, 75.51% of the students in the control group and 84.62% of the students in the experimental group, didn't take extra classes at any foreign language center.

The students of the control group and the experimental group took the same pretest as the assessment of their entrance listening competence level. The mean scores of the pretest were 5.08 for the control group and 5.05 for the experimental group as displayed in Table 3, which denotes that the students in both classes had virtually the same English listening competence level.

TABLE 3.
GROUP STATISTICS FOR PRETEST MEAN SCORES

	Groups	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Scores of pretest	Control group	49	5.08	1.792	.249
	Experimental group	52	5.05	1.367	.174

TABLE 4.
INDEPENDENT SAMPLES T-TEST ANALYSIS FOR THE PRETEST SCORES

	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means				
	F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference
Equal variances assumed	3.524	.063	-.107	104	.726	-.05	.314
Equal variances not assumed			-.105	97.521	.719	-.05	.315

The null hypothesis (H_0) posits that there would be no difference in listening pretest mean scores between the control group and the experimental group. Nonetheless, as "Levene's Test for Equality of Variances" in the Table 4 displays, the column "Sig." indicates the value of .063 which exceeded .05; thus, the row "Equal variances assumed" would be analyzed at the column "Sig. (2-tailed)". As the value of Sig. (2-tailed) at the row "Equal variances assumed" was .726 which was greater than .05, the null hypothesis (H_0) was accepted. This leads to the conclusion that there was no difference in listening pretest mean scores between the control group and experimental group, which again confirms the similarity in terms of students' English listening competence level between the control group and the experimental group.

C. *Experimental Teaching*

The experimental teaching was conducted at Saigon Technology University during 15 weeks from February 6, 2013 to May 19, 2013. Students had a 135-minute class meeting every week in which 40 minutes was spent on acquiring listening skill and 95 minutes on acquiring speaking, reading, and writing skills. "International Express, Interactive Editions Pre-Intermediate" was utilized as the course book for both control group and experimental group. The experimental teaching transpired at the pre-listening phase with the aim of activating prior knowledge in the students' memory through schema construction activities.

In the control group, the students learned listening with no schema construction activities. The teacher introduced the listening topic, exposed students to some new words, and immersed them in the listening tasks. After students listened to the listening text and answering its text-based questions, the teacher looked through their answers and provided the feedback to them. The students were not exposed to post-listening activities.

On the contrary, in the experimental group, the students were immersed in listening learning with schema construction activities. Prior to listening to the text, the students were asked to work individually, in pairs, or in groups in activities such as building a list of words and structures, doing crosswords, and discussing the topic they were going to listen to. These schema construction activities prepared the students for the listening text. After the students listened to the listening text, they participated in some post-listening activities such as discussing with group members, sharing views with the entire class, or writing journal.

The experimental teaching aimed at investigating the disparity in the listening performance of the students in the control group (with no schema construction activities) and the students in the experimental group (with schema construction activities) after 15-week English course.

The syllabus for English 2 course in the second semester of the school year 2012-2013 at Saigon Technology University is displayed in Table 5.

TABLE 5.
COURSE SYLLABUS

Course book: International Express, Interactive Editions Pre-Intermediate	
Class meetings	Units and Themes
1	Unit 1: First meetings
2	Unit 2: The world of work
3	Unit 3: Challenges
4	Unit 4: Plans and arrangements
5	Review A
6	Unit 5: How healthy is your lifestyle?
7	Unit 6: Flying gets cheaper
8	Unit 7: Changing lives
9	Unit 8: Crossing cultures
10	Review B
11	Unit 9: For over a century
12	Unit 10: Will our planet survive?
13	Unit 11: Getting around in cities
14	Unit 12: The story of cork
15	Review C

D. Instruments

This study seeks to examine the factors impacting listening learning and the effects of schema construction activities on EFL learners' listening learning through tests. The set of instrument utilized in the study was pretest and posttest. The aim of the pretest administered at the beginning of the course was to investigate if the control group and the experimental group were analogous in terms of English listening competence level, while the posttests were given upon completion of the course sought to discern whether there was a divergence in the students' listening test performance between the control group and experimental group after 14-week experimental teaching. The pretest and posttest were extracted from the book entitled Longman New Real TOEIC (2009) and had the same format. To eradicate the researcher's potential bias and ensure the objectivity of the results of posttest, the researcher invited her colleagues to mark the posttests of the students in both groups; and the results were delivered back to the researcher.

E. Data Collection Procedure

As previously indicated, the pretest was conducted on 435 students from nine first-year classes of Department of Business Administration at Saigon Technology University during the first two week of the course from February 6, 2013 to February 19, 2013. The pretest helped find the two classes of virtually homogenous listening competency level which were going to act as the control group and experimental group.

The two classes who had the rather similar listening proficiency level and background were then selected as the control group and experimental group. At the end of the last week, the students in both classes took posttest which served to appraise the progress in listening competence of the students in the experimental group who had been instructed with schema construction activities in comparison with that of the students in the control group who were taught with no schema construction activities.

IV. FINDINGS FROM THE PRETEST AND POSTTEST

So as to examine whether schema construction activities impact on EFL learners' listening performance, tests were employed. After 15 weeks of teaching in which the students of the experimental group had listening lessons with schema construction activities while there was no implementation of these activities in the control group; then they took the same posttest. The results of the posttest were used to examine the difference in the degree of progress in listening competence between the two classes.

There were 49 students in the control group and 52 students in the experimental group. However, few students in both classes didn't take the posttest because they were absent on the day the tests were delivered; therefore, only 46 students in the control group and 51 students in the experimental group took the posttest. The output produced by the independent t-test analysis of the posttest listening scores was presented in Table 6 and Table 7.

TABLE 6.
GROUP STATISTICS FOR POST-TEST MEAN SCORES

	Groups	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Scores of posttest	Control group	46	5.68	1.493	.207
	Experimental group	51	7.04	1.717	.244

TABLE 7.
INDEPENDENT SAMPLES T-TEST ANALYSIS OF THE POSTTEST LISTENING SCORES

	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means				
	F	Sig.	t	Df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference
Equal variances assumed	1.826	.129	-3.506	105	.002	-1.08	.317
Equal variances not assumed			-3.512	104	.002	-1.08	.319

The null hypothesis (H_0) claims that there was no difference in listening posttest mean scores between the control group and the experimental group. Nonetheless, as “Levene’s Test for Equality of Variances” in the Table 7 demonstrates the column “Sig.” had the value of .129 which was greater than 0.05. Therefore, the row “Equal variances assumed” would be observed at the column “Sig. (2-tailed)”. Since the value of Sig. (2-tailed) at the row “Equal variances assumed” was .002 which was less than 0.05, the null hypothesis (H_0) was rejected. It was, hence, concluded that there was the difference in listening posttest mean scores between the control group and experimental group.

V. LIMITATIONS AND FUTURE RESEARCH DIRECTIONS

As in every study, limitations of this study have been discerned (Luu, 2012a, 2012b, 2012c, 2012d, 2013). This study was conducted on 101 first-year students at Saigon Technology University (STU) only through non-random sampling approach. Therefore, the research findings can be utilized in this university merely or in other schools with similar conditions with caution.

This study also centered on young adult learners of around 18 years old. Learners of different age groups may display different impacts of schema construction activities. Moreover, the participants in this research were at the pre-intermediate English proficiency level. Another research which involves students with lower or higher level of English proficiency should be conducted to provide more comprehensive results as regards the role of schema construction activities in building EFL learners’ listening competence. The research results should be also further tested on students across universities rather than within a case study as in this research.

Even though this research corroborated the relationship between schema construction activities and learners’ listening performance, a future research can further investigate whether schema construction activities enhances other language skills, especially productive skills such as speaking and writing. Furthermore, schema construction activities are also intrinsically motivating; therefore, the interconnection between teaching with schema construction activities and learners’ motivation can be another research path.

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The Portrayal of Multiple Intelligence Theory in English Teaching Strategy for Indonesian Secondary School

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Abstract—The present study aims at finding out students' intelligence and describing teacher's strategy in English teaching. The sample of this study is taken from two Islamic secondary schools and one public junior secondary school in Makassar, Indonesia. The total sample of this research is 120 students. Interview and inventory were employed to obtain the data. The result of the study showed that three students of the secondary schools have different dominant intelligence. The students of Islamic junior secondary school (Pesantren IMMIM) have linguistic intelligence (56%), the students of public junior secondary school (SMP Neg.I) have interpersonal intelligence (25%), and the students of Islamic junior secondary school (SMP Wahdah) have interpersonal intelligence (20%). The teachers' present teaching strategies which were used by teachers of Islamic junior secondary school (Pesantren IMMIM Putra) was explanation, dialogue, simulation, reading and writing, English teacher of public junior secondary school (SMP Negeri I) applied explanation, reading, writing, mind mapping. English teacher of Islamic junior secondary school (SMP Wahdah) applied explanation, presentation, identification strategy.

Index Terms—potrayal, multiple intelligence, theory, teaching, strategy

I. INTRODUCTION

The English curriculum for secondary schools is developed in the framework of implementing the national educational system in a wider (<http://www.teflin.org/journal/index.php/teflin/article/viewFile/126/114>) socio-cultural and political context. The multicultural and multilingual context may both facilitate and impede the learning of a foreign language. A culture in which language is highly valued tends to impede creativity. Similarly, a top down political system, in which a commanding bureaucracy is the normal feature, will allow very little, if any opportunity for the subordinate to think critically and creatively (Madya, cited in Yeon, H, 2008, p.1-3).

Basically, Gardner' theory regarding implementing of multiple intelligences is that before teaching or presenting the materials, the teachers must know their students' intelligences so that students feel comfortable, interested, and motivated in learning English. Therefore, Indonesian English teachers need some strategies in Teaching English. This statement is in line with the Republic of Indonesia 2005 Teacher and Lecturer Act (Act No. 14/2005 on Teachers and Lecturers) that there is a set of knowledge, skills and (<http://www.futureswithoutviolence.org/userfiles/file/ImmigrantWomen/Culture%20Handbook.pdf>) behaviors that teachers or lecturers should have fully perform their professional tasks". This statement reveals that competency is a set of statements or descriptions that cover three key words: *skill*, *knowledge*, and *behavior* that could determine the effectiveness of performing an action. In relation to teaching, teacher competency is a set of description of skill, knowledge, and behavior required for performing effective teaching.

Furthermore, Gardner (1993) introduced the theory of multiple intelligence which postulated there are many different capabilities that result in many different ways of knowing, understanding, and learning about our world. (http://www.ijhssnet.com/journals/Vol_3_No_4_Special_Issue_February_2013/30.pdf) In intelligence theory, Gardner sets up certain basic tests that each intelligence had to meet to be considered a full-fledged intelligence and not simply a talent, skill, or aptitude. (<http://www.ascd.org/publications/books/109007/chapters/The-Foundations-of-MI-Theory.aspx>). So the criteria which are used including eight factors: (1) potential isolation by brain damage, (2) the existence of savants, prodigies, and other exceptional individuals, (3) a distinctive developmental history and a

definable set of expert "End-State" performance, (4) an evolutionary history and evolutionary plausibility, (5) support from psychometric findings, (6) support from experimental psychological tasks, (7) an identifiable core operation or set of operations, (8) susceptibility to encoding in symbolsystem. Accordingly, teachers must be well informed of the fact that in every classroom there are students who are different from each other in many different ways (Amstrong, 2003, p. 8).

In relation to multiple intelligence theory was pioneered by Gardner 1983, other experts also observed it. They stated that there are eight intelligences that might be possessed by human beings. These intelligences are linguistic, logical-mathematical, musical, bodily-kinesthetic, spatial, interpersonal, intrapersonal and naturalist intelligences (Gardner, 1993, p.41-44; 2003, p.35-46, , Armstrong, 2003; 2004, 2009, p.7; Chatib, 2009, p. 78-79; 2011, p.136-137 Gunawan, 2003, p. 107-146; Jasmine, 2007, p. 16-27). The following are descriptions of the intelligences that support the data presented.

1. *Linguistic intelligence* involves the ability to manipulate the syntax or structure of language, the phonology or sounds of language, the semantics or meanings of language and pragmatic dimensions or practical uses of language. Some of these uses include rhetoric (using language to remember information), explanation (using language to inform), and meta language (using language to talk about itself)

2. *Logical-mathematical intelligence* includes sensitivity to logical patterns and relationships, statements and propositions (if-then, cause-effect), functions, and other related abstractions. The kinds of processes used in the service of logical-mathematical intelligence include categorization, classification, inference, generalization, calculation, and hypothesis testing.

3. *Spatial intelligence* involves sensitivity to color, line, shape, form, space, and the relationships that exist between these elements. It includes the capacity to visualize, to graphically represent visual or spatial ideas, and to orient oneself appropriately in spatial matrix

4. *Musical intelligence* includes sensitivity to the rhythm, pitch or melody, and timbre or tone color of a musical piece.

5. *Bodily-kinesthetic intelligence* includes expertise in using one's whole body to express ideas and feelings (e.g., as an actor, a mime, an athlete, or dancer) and facility in using one's hands to produce or transform things. This intelligence includes specific physical skills such as coordination, balance, dexterity, strength, flexibility, and speed, as well as proprioceptive tactile, and haptic capacities.

6. *Interpersonal intelligence*. The ability to perceive and make distinctions in the moods, intentions, motivations, and feelings of other people. This can include sensitivity to facial expressions, voice, and gestures: the capacity for discriminating among many different kinds of interpersonal cues; and the ability to respond effectively to those cues in some pragmatic way.

7. *Intrapersonal intelligence*. Self-knowledge and the ability to act adaptively on the basis of that knowledge. The intelligence includes having an accurate picture of oneself (one's strengths and limitations); awareness of inner moods, intentions, motivations, temperaments. And desires, and the capacity for self-discipline, self-understanding and self-esteem.

8. *Naturalist*. Expertise in the recognition and classification of the numerous species-the flora and fauna of an individual's environment. This also includes sensitivity to other natural phenomena and in the case of those growing up in an urban environment, the capacity to discriminate among inanimate objects such as cars, sneakers.

A. MI Theory and Teaching Strategy

Several multiple intelligences (MI) in teaching strategies which can be described as follows.

1. Teaching Strategies for Linguistic Intelligence

Linguistic intelligence is perhaps the easiest intelligence to develop strategies for, because so much attention has been given to its cultivation in the schools. The five strategies described below are accessible to a broader range of learners because they emphasize open-ended language activities that bring out the linguistic intelligence in every learner. (Armstrong, 2009, p.73-98).
(<http://web.iaincirebon.ac.id/ebook/indrya/Kognitive&afektive/Gale%20Virtual%20Reference%20Library%20-%20Dokumen%20-%20MI%20T>)

a. Storytelling

Storytelling has traditionally been seen as entertainment for children in the public library or during special enrichment times in the classroom. However, it should be viewed as a vital teaching tool, for so it has been in cultures all over the world for thousands of years. When using storytelling in the classroom, we weave essential concepts, ideas, and instructional goals into a story that [\(<http://web.iaincirebon.ac.id/ebook/indrya/Kognitive&afektive/Gale%20Virtual%20Reference%20Library%20-%20Dokumen%20-%20MI%20T>\)](http://web.iaincirebon.ac.id/ebook/indrya/Kognitive&afektive/Gale%20Virtual%20Reference%20Library%20-%20Dokumen%20-%20MI%20T) we tell directly to students. Although storytelling is usually thought of as means of conveying knowledge in the humanities, it can be applied in mathematics and science as well. [\(<http://web.iaincirebon.ac.id/ebook/indrya/Kognitive&afektive/Gale%20Virtual%20Reference%20Library%20-%20Dokumen%20-%20MI%20T>\)](http://web.iaincirebon.ac.id/ebook/indrya/Kognitive&afektive/Gale%20Virtual%20Reference%20Library%20-%20Dokumen%20-%20MI%20T)

b. Brainstorming

The brainstorming can be about anything: words for a class poem, ideas for developing a group project, thoughts about material in [\(<http://web.iaincirebon.ac.id/ebook/indrya/Kognitive&afektive/Gale%20Virtual%20Reference%20Library%20-%20Dokumen%20-%20MI%20T>\)](http://web.iaincirebon.ac.id/ebook/indrya/Kognitive&afektive/Gale%20Virtual%20Reference%20Library%20-%20Dokumen%20-%20MI%20T) lesson being thought, suggestions for a class picnic. The general rules for brainstorming are: participants share whatever comes to mind that is relevant, no put-downs or criticisms of any idea are allowed, and every idea counts. [\(<http://web.iaincirebon.ac.id/ebook/indrya/Kognitive&afektive/Gale%20Virtual%20Reference%20Library%20-%20Dokumen%20-%20MI%20T>\)](http://web.iaincirebon.ac.id/ebook/indrya/Kognitive&afektive/Gale%20Virtual%20Reference%20Library%20-%20Dokumen%20-%20MI%20T)

c. Tape Recording

Tape recording or audio recording devices, including some software, are among the most valuable learning tools in any classroom. This is because they offer students a medium through which to learn about their linguistic powers and help them employ verbal skills to communicate, solve problems, and express inner feelings. Students can use tape recorders to “talk out loud” [\(<http://web.iaincirebon.ac.id/ebook/indrya/Kognitive&afektive/Gale%20Virtual%20Reference%20Library%20-%20Dokumen%20-%20MI%20T>\)](http://web.iaincirebon.ac.id/ebook/indrya/Kognitive&afektive/Gale%20Virtual%20Reference%20Library%20-%20Dokumen%20-%20MI%20T) a problem they are attempting to solve or project they are planning to do.

d. Journal Writing

Keeping a personal journal involves students in making on going written records related to a specific domain. The domain can be broad and open-ended (Write about anything [\(<http://web.iaincirebon.ac.id/ebook/indrya/Kognitive&afektive/Gale%20Virtual%20Reference%20Library%20-%20Dokumen%20-%20MI%20T>\)](http://web.iaincirebon.ac.id/ebook/indrya/Kognitive&afektive/Gale%20Virtual%20Reference%20Library%20-%20Dokumen%20-%20MI%20T) we are thinking about or feeling during the class day), and journals can be kept in math (Writing about our strategy for solving this problem), literature (keep an ongoing record of our responses to the books we are reading) or other subjects. They can be kept entirely private, shared only between teacher and student, [\(\[http://wiki.ubc.ca/images/b/b5/A_sample_of_Innovative_teaching_techniques.pdf\]\(http://wiki.ubc.ca/images/b/b5/A_sample_of_Innovative_teaching_techniques.pdf\)\)](http://wiki.ubc.ca/images/b/b5/A_sample_of_Innovative_teaching_techniques.pdf) regularly read to the class. They can also incorporate multiple intelligences by allowing drawings, sketches, photos, dialogues and other nonverbal data. [\(<http://web.iaincirebon.ac.id/ebook/indrya/Kognitive&afektive/Gale%20Virtual%20Reference%20Library%20-%20Dokumen%20-%20MI%20T>\)](http://web.iaincirebon.ac.id/ebook/indrya/Kognitive&afektive/Gale%20Virtual%20Reference%20Library%20-%20Dokumen%20-%20MI%20T)

e. Publishing

In traditional classrooms, students complete papers that are turned in, grade, and then often thrown away. Many students exposed to this kind of routine begin to see writing as the dreary process of fulfilling an assignment. Educators ought to be sending students a different message; that writing is a powerful tool for communicating ideas and influencing people. [\(<http://www.ascd.org/pdi/mi/read3-1.html>\)](http://www.ascd.org/pdi/mi/read3-1.html)

Publishing takes many forms. Students can submit their writing to a class or school newspaper, a city newspaper, a children’s magazine, or some other publishing source that accepts [\(<http://web.iaincirebon.ac.id/ebook/indrya/Kognitive&afektive/Gale%20Virtual%20Reference%20Library%20-%20Dokumen%20-%20MI%20T>\)](http://web.iaincirebon.ac.id/ebook/indrya/Kognitive&afektive/Gale%20Virtual%20Reference%20Library%20-%20Dokumen%20-%20MI%20T) students work.

2. Teaching Strategies for Logical-Mathematical Intelligence

Typically, logical-mathematical thinking is restricted to math and science courses. There are components of this intelligence, however, that are applicable throughout the curriculum. The emergence of the critical-thinking movement certainly suggests one broad way in which logical-mathematical intelligence has affected the social sciences and humanities.

[\(<http://web.iaincirebon.ac.id/ebook/indrya/Kognitive&afektive/Gale%20Virtual%20Reference%20Library%20-%20Dokumen%20-%20MI%20T>\)](http://web.iaincirebon.ac.id/ebook/indrya/Kognitive&afektive/Gale%20Virtual%20Reference%20Library%20-%20Dokumen%20-%20MI%20T) There are five major strategies for developing logical-mathematical intelligences that can be employed in all school subjects

a. Calculations and Quantifications

In line with school reform efforts, teachers are being encouraged to discover opportunities to talk about numbers both inside and outside the math and science arena. In subjects such as history and geography, we may focus regularly on important statistics: live lost in wars, populations of countries, and so forth. [\(<http://web.iaincirebon.ac.id/ebook/indrya/Kognitive&afektive/Gale%20Virtual%20Reference%20Library%20-%20Dokumen%20-%20MI%20T>\)](http://web.iaincirebon.ac.id/ebook/indrya/Kognitive&afektive/Gale%20Virtual%20Reference%20Library%20-%20Dokumen%20-%20MI%20T)

b. Classifications and Categorization

The logical can be stimulated anytime information is put into some kind of rational framework, whether the data be linguistic, logical-mathematical, spatial, or any other kind. For example, in a unit on the effects of climate on culture, students might brainstorm a random list geographic locations and then classify them by type of climate (e.g., desert, mountain, plains, or tropical), (<http://web.iaincirebon.ac.id/ebook/indrya/Kognitive&afektive/Gale%20Virtual%20Reference%20Library%20-%20Dokumen%20-%20MI%20T>) in a science unit on states of matter, the teacher might put the names of three categories such as gas, liquid, solid, at the top of columns on the blackboard and then ask students to list examples of things belonging to each category. Other examples of logical frameworks include 5W organizers (diagrams that answer who, what, when, where, and why questions), and (<http://web.iaincirebon.ac.id/ebook/indrya/Kognitive&afektive/Gale%20Virtual%20Reference%20Library%20-%20Dokumen%20-%20MI%20T>) mind-map. The value of this approach is that disparate fragments of information can be organized around central ideas or themes, making them easier to remember, discuss, and think about. (<http://web.iaincirebon.ac.id/ebook/indrya/Kognitive&afektive/Gale%20Virtual%20Reference%20Library%20-%20Dokumen%20-%20MI%20T>)

c. Socratic Questioning

The critical-thinking movement has provided an important alternative to the traditional image of the teacher as knowledge dispenser. In Socratic questioning, the teacher serves as a questioner of students' points of view. (<http://web.iaincirebon.ac.id/ebook/indrya/Kognitive&afektive/Gale%20Virtual%20Reference%20Library%20-%20Dokumen%20-%20MI%20T>) In relation to this point, the Greek sage Socrates is the model for this type of instruction. Instead of talking at students, the teacher participates in dialogues with them, aiming to uncover the rightness or wrongness of their beliefs. Students share their hypotheses about how the world works, and the teacher guides the "testing" of these hypotheses for clarity, precision, accuracy, logical coherence, or relevance through artful questioning (Paul, 1992 in Armstrong, 2003, p.78) (<http://web.iaincirebon.ac.id/ebook/indrya/Kognitive&afektive/Gale%20Virtual%20Reference%20Library%20-%20Dokumen%20-%20MI%20T>)

d. Heuristics

The field of heuristics refer to a loose collection of strategies, rules of thumb, guidelines, and suggestions for logical problem solving. (<http://web.iaincirebon.ac.id/ebook/indrya/Kognitive&afektive/Gale%20Virtual%20Reference%20Library%20-%20Dokumen%20-%20MI%20T>) Heuristics can be regarded as a major teaching or learning strategy. Examples of heuristic principles include finding analogies to the problem wish to solve, separating the various parts of the problem, proposing a possible solution to the problem and then working backward, and finding a problem related to (<http://web.iaincirebon.ac.id/ebook/indrya/Kognitive&afektive/Gale%20Virtual%20Reference%20Library%20-%20Dokumen%20-%20MI%20T>) ours and then solving it.

e. Science Thinking

This strategy is specially important given research showing that up 70 percent of a adults lack a fundamental understanding of the scientific process (Recer,2002 in Armstrong, 2009, p.79). There are ways to spread science thinking across the curriculum. For instance, students can study the influence important scientific ideas have had on history.(e.g., how the development of the atomic bomb influenced the outcome of World War II).They can study science fiction with an eye toward discovering if the ideas described are feasible. They can learn about global issues such as AIDS, overpopulation, and greenhouse (<http://web.iaincirebon.ac.id/ebook/indrya/Kognitive&afektive/Gale%20Virtual%20Reference%20Library%20-%20Dokumen%20-%20MI%20T>) effect that require some science background to be well understood.

3. Teaching Strategies for Spatial Intelligenc

a. Visualization

This strategy helps students understand materials by visualizing the materials into pictures saved in their minds. One of the easiest ways to help students translate book and lecture material into(<http://web.iaincirebon.ac.id/ebook/indrya/Kognitive&afektive/Gale%20Virtual%20Reference%20Library%20-%20Dokumen%20-%20MI%20T>) picture whatever is being studied. The pictures in one's mind or the pictures in the external world, such as photos, movies, drawings, graphic symbols. (Chatib, 2011, p.119) (<http://web.iaincirebon.ac.id/ebook/indrya/Kognitive&afektive/Gale%20Virtual%20Reference%20Library%20-%20Dokumen%20-%20MI%20T>)

b. Color Cues

Many creative ways to put color into the classroom as (<http://web.iaincirebon.ac.id/ebook/indrya/Kognitive&afektive/Gale%20Virtual%20Reference%20Library%20-%20Dokumen%20-%20MI%20T>) learning tool. Students can learn to use different colored markers to "color code" material they are studying. Use color to emphasize patterns, rules, or classifications during instruction (e.g., coloring all *th*'s red in a phonics lesson, using different colors to write about distinct historical stages in Greek history). Finally, students can use their favorite colors as a stress reducer when coping with difficult

(<http://web.iaincirebon.ac.id/ebook/indrya/Kognitive&afective/Gale%20Virtual%20Reference%20Library%20-%20Dokumen%20-%20MI%20T>) problem.

c. Picture Metaphors

A metaphor involves comparing one idea to another, seemingly unrelated idea. A picture metaphor expresses this concept in a visual image. The educational value of using metaphors lies in establishing connections between what a student already knows and what is being presented.

(<http://web.iaincirebon.ac.id/ebook/indrya/Kognitive&afective/Gale%20Virtual%20Reference%20Library%20-%20Dokumen%20-%20MI%20T>)

d. Idea Sketching

The Idea Sketching strategy involves asking students to draw the key point, main idea, central theme, or core concept being taught. This strategy can be used to evaluate a student's understanding of an idea, to emphasize a concept, or to give students ample opportunity to explore an idea in greater depth.

(<http://web.iaincirebon.ac.id/ebook/indrya/Kognitive&afective/Gale%20Virtual%20Reference%20Library%20-%20Dokumen%20-%20MI%20T>)

e. Graphic Symbols

One of the most traditional teaching strategies involves writing words on a blackboard. Less common, especially after primary school, is drawing pictures on the board, even though pictures may be extremely important to the understanding of the spatially inclined student. Consequently, teachers who can support their teaching with drawings and graphic symbols, as well as words, may be reaching a wider range of learners. This strategy, then, requires

(<http://web.iaincirebon.ac.id/ebook/indrya/Kognitive&afective/Gale%20Virtual%20Reference%20Library%20-%20Dokumen%20-%20MI%20T>) us to practice drawing at least some part of our lessons for instance, by creating

graphic symbols that depict the concepts to be learned.

(<http://web.iaincirebon.ac.id/ebook/indrya/Kognitive&afective/Gale%20Virtual%20Reference%20Library%20-%20Dokumen%20-%20MI%20T>) For example:

- Showing the three states of matter by drawing a solid mass (heavy chalk marks), a liquid mass (lighter curvy marks).
- Indicating "root words" by putting little roots at the base of those words on the board.

Drawing a time line for a novel's plot or historical event and marking the line not only with dates and names but also with (<http://web.iaincirebon.ac.id/ebook/indrya/Kognitive&afective/Gale%20Virtual%20Reference%20Library%20-%20Dokumen%20-%20MI%20T>) picture that symbolize events.

4. Teaching Strategies for Bodily-Kinesthetic

a. Body Answers

Ask students to respond to instruction by using their bodies as a medium of expression. (<http://web.iaincirebon.ac.id/ebook/indrya/Kognitive&afective/Gale%20Virtual%20Reference%20Library%20-%20Dokumen%20-%20MI%20T>) For example, students raise their hands when they understand. Other body answers are also suggested such as:

- a) Shaking head when students do not understand;
- b) Blinking one eye to sign something secret;
- c) Waving hands to say goodbye;
- d) Making flying motions with their arms when students are acting out as airplanes.

b. Classroom Theater

To bring out the actor in each of the students, ask them to enact the texts, problems, or other material to be learned by dramatizing or role-playing the content. For example, students might dramatize a math problem involving three-step problem solving by putting on three-act play. Classroom Theater can be as informal as a one-minute improvisation of a reading passage during class or as formal as a one-hour play at the end of the semester that sum up students' understanding of a broad learning theme. It can be done without any materials, or it may involve.

(<http://web.iaincirebon.ac.id/ebook/indrya/Kognitive&afective/Gale%20Virtual%20Reference%20Library%20-%20Dokumen%20-%20MI%20T>)

5. Teaching Strategies for Musical Intelligence

Rhythms, songs, raps, and chants are very helpful in teaching and learning process. This strategy provides relaxed atmosphere and help young learners remember the materials easily. Songs help learners understand the materials easily as they contain repetition and simple language. (Pinter, 2006 in Armstrong, 2009).

The use song is considered suitable for this strategy as it contained total physical response activities. It promote students' prior knowledge to touch mentioned parts of body correctly.

6. Teaching Strategies for Interpersonal Intelligence

Peer sharing can also evolve into peer tutoring (one student coaching or teaching specific material to another student) or cross-age tutoring (an older student working with a younger student in different class)

Simulation involves a group of people coming together to create an as-if environment. Simulations can be quick and improvisational in nature, with the teacher providing an instant scenario to act out: "Okay, you've just gotten off the boat from your

(<http://web.iaincirebon.ac.id/ebook/indrya/Kognitive&afective/Gale%20Virtual%20Reference%20Library%20-%20Dokumen%20-%20MI%20T>)

[%20Dokumen%20-%20MI%20T](#)) to the New World and you're all standing around together. Begin the action!" (Armstrong, 2009, p.89-91; Chatib, 2011, p. 119).

7. Teaching Strategies for Intrapersonal Intelligence

one-minute reflection period can occur anytime during the school day, but it may be particularly useful after the presentation of information that is especially challenging or central to the curriculum. During this one-minute period (which can be extended or shortened to accommodate differing attention spans), there is to be no talking and students are to simply think about what has been presented in any way they'd like. Silence is usually the best environment for reflection, but

(<http://web.iaincirebon.ac.id/ebook/indrya/Kognitive&afektive/Gale%20Virtual%20Reference%20Library%20-%20Dokumen%20-%20MI%20T>) we occasionally might try using background "thinking" music as an option. Also, students should not feel compelled to "share" what they thought about, but this activity can be combined with peer sharing to make it both an (<http://web.iaincirebon.ac.id/ebook/indrya/Kognitive&afektive/Gale%20Virtual%20Reference%20Library%20-%20Dokumen%20-%20MI%20T>) intra- and interpersonal activity.

8. Teaching Strategies for Naturalist Intelligence

Window onto learning. One of the classic images of an "inattentive" student in the classroom is of a child sitting at a desk looking wistfully out the window while, presumably, fantasizing about what she'd rather be doing! Why do kids want to look out the window?

(<http://web.iaincirebon.ac.id/ebook/indrya/Kognitive&afektive/Gale%20Virtual%20Reference%20Library%20-%20Dokumen%20-%20MI%20T>) It's because when they see out there is more interesting than what is going on in the classroom. (Armstrong, 2009).

(<http://web.iaincirebon.ac.id/ebook/indrya/Kognitive&afektive/Gale%20Virtual%20Reference%20Library%20-%20Dokumen%20-%20MI%20T>)

B. Learning Theories

Theories of learning provide a philosophical basis which can guide the development course materials. Brown (2000,p.78) states that there are many theories which explain about learning, although he focuses on three perspectives on learning: behaviorism, cognitivism, and constructivism. Theory of learning has supported intelligence theory.

a. Behaviorism

Behaviorism as a theory was primarily developed by B.F. Skinner. ([http://www.princeton.edu/~achaney/tmve/wiki100k/docs/Learning_theory_\(education\).html](http://www.princeton.edu/~achaney/tmve/wiki100k/docs/Learning_theory_(education).html)) There are three basic assumptions to be true. First, learning is manifested by a change in behavior. Second, the environment shapes behavior. Third, the principles of contiguity (how close in time two events must be for a bond to be formed) and reinforcement (any means of increasing the likelihood that an event will be repeated) are central to explaining the learning process. ([http://www.princeton.edu/~achaney/tmve/wiki100k/docs/Learning_theory_\(education\).html](http://www.princeton.edu/~achaney/tmve/wiki100k/docs/Learning_theory_(education).html)) Behaviorists considered that learning is a stimulus and response action in the learner. They perceive that the role of teachers is as modification of behavior that is reinforced by the stimulus by setting up a situation.

b. Cognitivism

Two key assumptions underline this cognitive approach: (1) the memory system is an active organized processor of information; (2) that prior knowledge plays an important role in learning. Cognitive theories look beyond behavior to explain brain-based learning. Cognitivists consider how human memory works to promote learning. For example, the physiological processes of sorting and encoding information and events into short term memory and long term memory are important to educators working under the cognitive theory. The major difference between gestaltists and behaviorists is the locus of control over the learning activity. (<http://aiobp.org/free/learning-theories.php>)

c. Constructivism

Constructivism is revolution in educational psychology. Built on the work of Piaget and Brunner, constructivism emphasizes the importance of active involvement of learners in constructing knowledge for themselves. To design effective environments, one needs a very good understanding of what children know when they come to the classroom. (<http://www.termpaperwarehouse.com/essay-on/Learning-Theories/84337>) Constructivism views learning as a process in which the learner actively constructs or builds new ideas or concepts based upon current and past knowledge or experience. (<http://www.weegy.com/?ConversationId=B37CB93F>) Constructivism itself has many variations, such as active (http://www.selfgrowth.com/articles/definition_learning_theories.html) learning, discovery learning, and knowledge building. Regardless of variety, constructivism promotes a student's free exploration within a given framework or structure. The teacher acts as a facilitator who encourages students to discover principles for themselves and to construct knowledge by working to solve realistic problems. Aspects of constructivism can be found in self-directed learning, transformational learning, and experiential learning. (Kanhadilok, 2013)

II. METHODOLOGY

The study was qualitative data which were taken from observation, inventory. Interview, Sample of this study was secondary school in Makassar which involved private school (SMP Wahdah), state school (SMP Neg.I) and Islamic school (SMP Pesantren IMMIM Putra Makassar).

TABLE 1.
THE RESPONDENTS' COMPOSITION

NO	Secondary School	The Number of Population		The number of Sample	
		Teachers	Students	Teachers	Students
1	Islamic junior secondary school (SMP Wahdah)	4	120	2	40
2	Islamic junior secondary school (Pesantren IMMIM Putra)	5	210	3	30
3	Public junior secondary school (SMP Neg. I)	6	300	2	30
	Total	15	630	7	100

Sample of this research took randomly to answer inventory and open questions. Inventory was conducted to identify students' intelligence. It covered 25 items of eight intelligences, while open question was conducted to know strategy which was used in teaching English. Both the result of the inventory and interview were analyzed by qualitatively.

III. RESULT AND ANALYSIS

A. Profile of the Students' Multiple Intelligence

To know students' intelligence, the researcher provided inventory which consisted of 25 items of eight intelligences. The result of identifying students' intelligence shows that three schools have different intelligence.

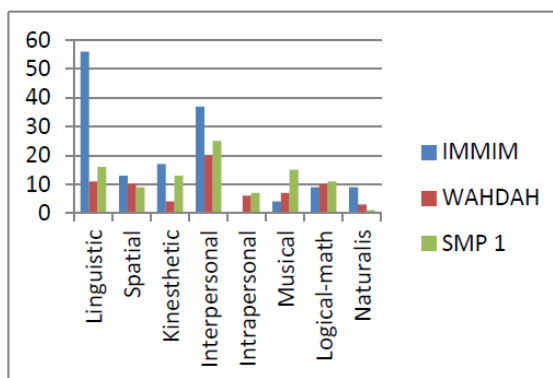


Figure 1. Multiple Intelligence Profile of Students

Figure 1 shows that students of public junior secondary school (SMP Neg. I) have strong interpersonal intelligence (25 %) and they have weak naturalist intelligence (1%), the students of Islamic junior secondary school (Pesantren IMMIM Putra) have a strong linguistic intelligence (56%), they have weak musical (5%), and the students of Islamic junior secondary school (SMP Wahdah) have a strong interpersonal intelligence (20%), and they have weak naturalist intelligence (5%).

B. Teachers' Present Teaching Strategy

The data of the teachers' interview describes that English teacher sometimes face difficulties to develop materials that prompt the use of teaching strategies. Teachers tend to traditionally teaching strayegies without understanding students intelligence differences. It indicates that English teachers of three schools applied different strategies when teaching English. The teachers of Islamic junior secondary school (Pesantren IMMIM Putra) mostly employed explanation, dialogue, simulation, reading and writing, while the English teachers of public junior secondary school (SMP Neg.I) applied explanation, reading, writing, and mind mapping. The English teachers of Islamic junior secondary school (SMP Wahdah) applied explanation, presentation, identification strategy.

IV. DISCUSSIONS AND CONCLUSIONS

According to Gardner (1993 in Armstrong, 2004,p. 2-3) there are eight intelligences, namely linguistic intelligence, logical-mathematic intelligence, spatial intelligence, bodily kinesthetic, musical intelligence, intrapersonal intelligence, interpersonal intelligence, and naturalistic. In addition, Gardner (1993) views that everyone possesses a number of distinct intelligences that manifest themselves in different skills and abilities. All human beings apply these intelligences to solve problems, invent processes, and create things. (http://www.cal.org/caela/esl_resources/digests/MI.html) Therefore, the teachers have to consider their students' intelligence profile and learning strategy in developing materials.

The result of teachers' interview shows that the teaching strategies applied by the English teachers of Islamic junior secondary school (Pesantren IMMIM Putra) was linguistic intelligence (explanation, writing) and interpersonal intelligence (dialogue, simulation, presentation). The English teacher of public junior secondary school (SMP Neg.I) applied linguistic intelligence (explanation, reading, storytelling) and logical-mathematic intelligence (mind mapping), and English teacher of Islamic junior secondary school (SMP Wahdah) applied linguistic intelligence (explanation, writing, reading) and logical-mathematic intelligence (identification).

While the result of the students' inventory shows that students of Islamic junior secondary school (Pesantren IMMIM Putra) have a strong linguistic intelligence, the students can respond well to a complex grammar explanation. Both students of public secondary school (SMP Neg.1) and students of Islamic secondary school (SMP Wahdah) have a strong interpersonal intelligence that might require a more interactive climate in learning.

The data show that the English teachers of three junior secondary schools mostly employed two intelligences, namely linguistic intelligence and logical-mathematic. While there are six intelligences (spatial intelligence, musical intelligence, bodily-kinesthetic intelligence, interpersonal intelligence, intrapersonal intelligence, and naturalist intelligence) haven't applied when teaching English.

V. CONCLUSION

The Previous statements describe that students of Islamic junior secondary school (Pesantren IMMIM Putra) have a strong linguistic intelligence, while the students of Islamic junior secondary school (SMP Wahdah) and the students of public junior secondary school (SMP Neg.1) have strong interpersonal intelligence. The teaching strategies which were applied by the English teachers of Islamic junior secondary school (Pesantren IMMIM Putra) was linguistic intelligence (explanation, writing) and interpersonal intelligence (dialogue, simulation, presentation). The English teacher of public junior secondary school (SMP Neg.I) applied linguistic intelligence (explanation, reading, storytelling), and logical-mathematic intelligence (mind mapping), and the English teacher of Islamic junior secondary school (SMP Wahdah) applied explanation, presentation, identification strategy. Based on Gardner's theory, in this case, teachers strategies have not accommodated students' intelligence differences, so the students still faced difficulties in learning English. Therefore, it is recommended that the teaching strategies be developed through the eight intelligences. Finally, This recommendation is expected to be useful for the teachers to be professional in teaching English, in order that the students are interested in learning English.

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From Communicative Competence to Interactional Competence: A New Outlook to the Teaching of Spoken English

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Abstract—This paper reexamines communicative competence by studying several representative models. After examining some inherent defects with today's communicative spoken English teaching, the author highlights the importance of strategic competence and proposes a shift to interactional competence because conversational strategies can be best acquired and studied in the light of complete conversational loops. The author also proposes a model for the teaching of spoken English and demonstrates how conversational strategies function throughout the whole conversational loop. It is also hoped that spoken English testing should take the form of bi-directional or multi-directional conversation among candidates so that the teaching of conversational strategies can better promote the development of interactional competence.

Index Terms—communicative competence, conversational strategy, interactional competence, spoken English teaching and testing, conversational loop

Perhaps the majority of language teachers today, when asked to identify the methodology they employ in their classroom, mention “communicative” as the methodology of choice. However, when they are pressed to give a detailed account of what they mean by it, their explanations vary widely.

I. COMMUNICATIVE COMPETENCE IN COLLEGE ENGLISH TEACHING

College English teaching has been one of the greatest concerns in higher education in China. College students spend a large portion of their spare time on English learning, but many of them still feel frustrated by their poor command of English in usage. Faced with the accusation of being responsible for such “dumb English”, teachers and researchers have been actively exploring methods for improving students' competence for using English. According to the “College English Curriculum Requirements”, “the object of College English is to develop students' ability to use English in an all-round way, especially in listening and speaking, so that in their future work and social interactions they will be able to exchange information effectively through both spoken and written channels, and at the same time they will be able to enhance their ability to study independently and improve their cultural quality so as to meet the needs of China's social development and international exchanges.” (Higher Education Department of the Ministry of Education, 2007) This statement shows manifestly that communicative competence is placed at the top of the priority list.

Today most college English teachers have consciously adopted the communicative approach in their teaching, but students still complain about their poor communicative competence. It is therefore important for us to reexamine this key concept and find a better solution.

Overview of Communicative Competence

Communicative competence is one of the key notions in second language acquisition. Hymes (1971, 1972) introduced the notion of “communicative competence” as opposed to Chomsky's dichotomy of “competence” and “performance”. He points out that it is more important for language users to understand the social rules for the actual use of a language for daily interaction. Hymes' communicative competence model consists of two areas of competence: grammatical competence and sociolinguistic competence, and “ability for use.” Communicative competence is separated from the actual performance in real-time, concrete situations. Hymes' communicative competence model can be illustrated as follows:

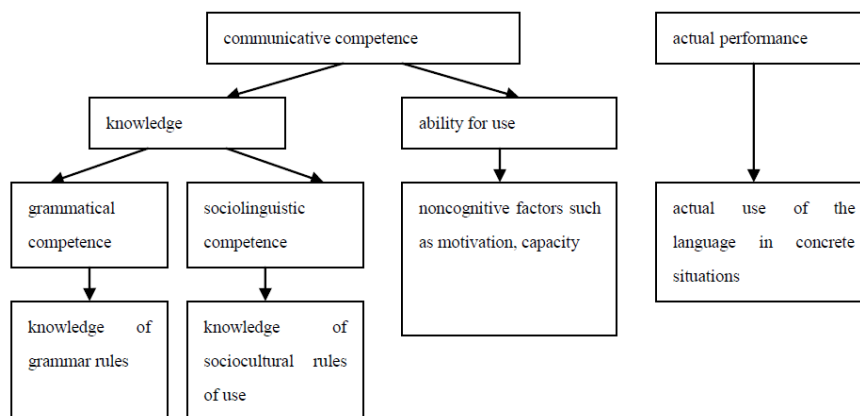


Figure 1 Hymes' Communicative Competence Model

Hymes' attention to communicative competence inspired a number of models of such competence. The two world famous follow-up studies between 1980 and 1990 were conducted by Canale & Swain (1980) and Bachman (1990). In the context of L2 teaching, Canale & Swain (1980, p.20) defined communicative competence as “a synthesis of knowledge of basic grammatical principles, knowledge of how language is used in social contexts to perform communicative functions, and knowledge of how utterances and communicative functions can be combined according to the principle of discourse”.

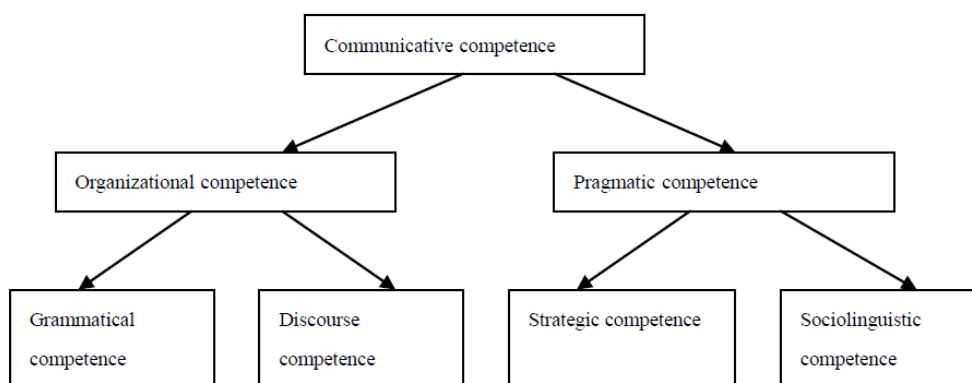


Figure 2 Canale's model of language competence

A similar theoretical framework for communicative competence was developed by Bachman (1988, 1990) and Bachman & Palmer (1982, 1996). In their 1996 model of communicative ability, Bachman & Palmer distinguished three components: “organizational knowledge,” “pragmatic knowledge,” and “strategic competence.” Organizational knowledge includes both grammatical knowledge and textual knowledge (covering cohesion). Pragmatic knowledge includes both knowledge of sociolinguistic rules and functional knowledge (“illocutionary competence,” as in Bachman, 1990). Strategic competence involves the ability to make the most effective use of available abilities to carry out a given task. Strategic competence is conceived of “as a set of metacognitive components, or strategies, which can be thought of as higher order executive processes that provide a cognitive management function for language use, as well as in other cognitive activities” (Bachman & Palmer, 1996, p.70). Three basic areas of strategic competence are identified: goal setting, planning, and assessment (Verhoeven & Vermeer, 2002).

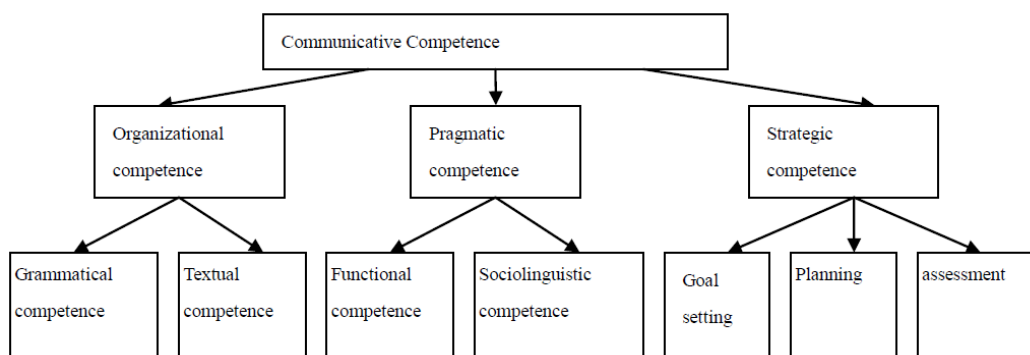


Figure 3 Bachman's Communicative Competence Model (after Bachman & Palmer 1996, p.68)

Wen (1999) argues for the importance of cross-cultural communication in the study of communicative competence. She believes that the ability for handling cultural differences in interactions should be integrated into the study of communicative competence. Based on the analysis of these models, Wen proposed her own model for “cross-cultural communicative competence”, in which “cross-cultural competence” constitutes a component parallel to communicative competence.

While different researchers have been discussing the definition and classification of communicative competence and have proposed different models, the controversy usually revolves around two core competences: how correctly learners can use the foreign language and how appropriately learners can use the foreign language. The former, defined as “organizational competence” (Canale, 1980), refers to the learner’s lexical, syntactic and stylistic competences. By contrast, the latter, defined variously as “pragmatic competence” (Canale, 1980, p.20) or “sociolinguistic competence” (Savignon, 1983, p.87) or “intercultural competence” (Wen, 1999, p.9; Sercu, 2005, p.3), concerned about how the learner uses the language appropriately in a specified context to enable successful communication. For the sake of convenience, the author suggests that they should be termed respectively as “linguistic competence” and “strategic competence”. Linguistic competence has always earned the greatest attention in language learning, but strategic competence still lacks due attention. Thus striking a proper balance between these two elements has become a great challenge for foreign language teachers in China.

II. PRESENT SITUATION OF COMMUNICATIVE COMPETENCE IN LANGUAGE TEACHING IN CHINA

Today, most foreign language educators have readily embraced the communicative objective as the overriding principle underlying activities in today’s classrooms. The communicative approach has been widely adopted in teaching practice. Despite growing concern over the development of communicative competence, the present teaching of spoken English is still largely unsuccessful, incurring complaints from many learners. The problems can be summed up as follows:

A. *Overdue Bias on Linguistic Competence Rather Than Strategic Competence*

Both Wen (1999) and other researchers have long ago reached consensus that “strategic competence” should be added to the classification of communicative competence, but it is not yet incorporated in spoken English teaching. Language educators have been dedicated to developing learners’ linguistic competence during the history of language teaching, and this is embodied in most approaches to language learning such as grammar-translation approach, audio-lingual approach, direct approach and communicative approach. By contrast, teachers’ long-standing negligence of communicative strategies in classroom teaching has resulted in learners’ lack of strategic competence—students always find themselves unable to interact successfully with people in English. Just as Wang (2004) points out, Chinese students tend to use a few strategies repeatedly in their conversation; they show poor management capacity for conversational strategies, and are deficient in turn-taking, turn control and interactional strategies. This has led to some negative influences on their fluency and speed of spoken English.

Most teachers lay special emphasis on grammatical correctness and hasten to point out speech errors of learners. With the introduction of communicative approach, an increasing number of educators have realized the importance of developing learners’ speaking competence, but grammar teaching is still dominant in the foreign language classroom. Learners are taught a few typical responses to certain questions in some typical communicative contexts, but their pragmatic competence remains poor, or in other words, learners feel inadequate as to how to fulfill a communicative task appropriately in interactions.

Such inadequacies are by no means strange to Chinese teachers. In tests of different levels, students have shown a clear lack of communicative strategies, which hinders their communicative performance. This demonstrates a long-standing negligence from teachers and researchers—despite their attention to discrete functional skills, most of them are simply unaware of regular communicative strategies in handling routine interactions. A sample from College English Learner’s Spoken Corpus (COLSEC) on CD-ROM can fully demonstrate the lack of communicative strategies in Chinese students:

<interlocutor> OK. Now would you please briefly introduce yourselves to each other. Remember you should not mention the name of your university. </interlocutor>

<sp1> Thank you. I begin, all right? </sp1>

<interlocutor> OK. </interlocutor>

<sp1>... You know my name and my admission ticket. I'm a junior student majoring electronic communication. I enjoy rich studying [Pu-r] and I really appreciate this chance to show my spoken English. Since I'm a little tense now, I have never taken this [Wth-d] kind of spoken English test, I'm afraid I'll make some... grammar mistakes that... are very obscure, I wish you all [P2l-r] will tolerate them, and I will try my best to avoid [Wv-w] them. Is that... that's all, thank you, thank you for listening.

...

<interlocutor> OK, OK. Now... now we have known each other, we can do some group work.

...

--an excerpt from 010039.txt in COLSEC on CD-ROM (Yang & Wei, 2005)

This excerpt from a spoken test shows that the learner has made some pragmatic mistakes, but her grammatical competence is quite acceptable. In the first response to the interlocutor, she states some words that are clearly prepared beforehand, but the majority of her statement is simply unnecessary. She has committed the error of overdue modesty that is typical of traditional Chinese culture—by contrast, people in Western culture seem more straightforward, as they would usually come directly to the topic in a conversation.

<sp1> Ok. Ah my topic is about eh communicating with native speakers and reading as wide widely as possible. Er as mn as we have passed the CET test, maybe there will be less English er lessons in our school. So we en it is very important for us [P-1] to learn English by ourselves [P-1]. And first way is to communicate with native speakers because by speaking with native speakers, we can eh learn some er we can know how to use our English er bu- er how to communicate with others. And as native speakers, they speak native English. Er we can know how to use English in the right way. Er and also we can learn some culture backgrounds and different eh world [MI] views of native speakers. And second is to read as widely as possible. Mn er after after er speaking with other people, you should er also have some work of reading because from reading you can not er not en not only the not only know er your er those words and expressions you learned from school, and also you can read some ori- er original materials, and you can further further your world [MI] views and further [Wt-d] er not only in the field of English language, but also the other langu- mn al-also in other er fields. So reading as widely as possible is also a very important way to improve our English. </sp1>

...
 --an excerpt from 030259.txt in COLSEC on CD-ROM (Yang & Wei, 2005)

As shown in this speech, the speaker shows pretty good command of English grammar. However, whenever he has problems in expression, he uses very few communicative strategies repeatedly, which greatly damages his fluency. As we can see, there is a striking overuse of stalling strategy. He overuses “er”, “en”, “eh” to keep the speech going. He also uses self-repetition as a stalling strategy, but such a repetition as “not er not en not only the not only” is too monotonous. Actually, he might as well use a variety of fillers such as “well”, “sort of”, “you know”, “as we can see”, etc.

B. Overdue Bias on Discrete Skills Rather Than Interactional Skills

Textbooks on spoken English are usually arranged according to functional-notional situations so that learners are taught a specific skill of making inquiries or responses within one given context. Yu & Li (2002) can be seen as a typical representative—the whole textbook is composed of 16 units, each including one specific communicative function such as inquiring about future activities, expressing hope, ordering a meal at a restaurant, and seeing the doctor. These functions are taught in typical dialogues in the format of one response to one inquiry. Such simulated communicative situations can never cover all the functions in real situations, because teachers have not told students how to interact successfully with people within a given context and fulfill a complete loop of conversation. As a result, learners may be able to respond to one question or another in a given format, but can hardly adjust to new challenges within the context. Ultimately, despite their discrete skills, many of them still lack the interactional skills that are required in real communicative situations. In other words, they lack the necessary strategic competence to fulfill their communicative goals. Just as Guo (2002) points out, college students usually feel awkward in authentic conversations and discussions, which are manifested in both their inability to use conversational skills in starting, changing or ending a topic and their inability to perform natural communication with appropriate communicative strategies. He concludes that these show that students are only capable of one-way communication and have not yet mastered the genuine communicative competence—the interactional communicative competence.

In the speech exercises of college English class, students are taught some discrete functional-notional skills in a few communicative situations. A typical one goes like this:

TABLE 1
 A TYPICAL COMMUNICATIVE SITUATION IN COLLEGE ENGLISH TEXTBOOKS (AN EXCERPT FROM *STUDENTS BOOK, COLLEGE ENGLISH—LISTENING AND SPEAKING COURSE 2*)

Communicative Function: <i>Buying a Meal at a School Canteen or a Fast Food Restaurant</i>	
Counter hand	Customer
What'll you have?	I'd like a cheeseburger, an order of fries and a chocolate shake.
Can I help you?	Yes, I'd like...
What do you want?	I think I'll have...
What are you going to have?	I'll try a chicken sandwich.
What can I get you?	A bowl of wonton.
To eat here or to go?	I'll eat here.
...	...

The communicative function above is typical of most college English textbooks. A glance at the inquiries and responses reveals that these sentence drills are simply an extension of classroom grammatical practices. Students are required to follow the given formats to produce the grammatically correct answers that are expected, no more no less. All answers conform perfectly to the four Gricean maxims of the Cooperative Principle: the maxim of quality, the

maxim of quantity, the maxim of relation and the maxim of manner (Levinson, 1983). However, such fixed patterns yield no conversational implicature and thus are lacking in creativity and subtlety. According to a survey of 35 adult learners by Gao (2002), most of them have gained good linguistic competence, as is shown by the fact that 80% of them passed the CET-4 examination, yet they still commit many pragmatic errors in spoken English.

III. INTERACTIONAL COMPETENCE IN SPOKEN ENGLISH TEACHING

A. *Interactional Competence vs. Communicative Competence*

When communicative competence is developed in discrete functional-notional fields, prescribed patterns of conversation replaces the spontaneous and vivid interactions, and the whole teaching is reduced to a structural approach—learners just need to parrot some given sentence patterns to react to given contexts. Therefore some researchers such as He & Young (1998), and Young (1999) propose an alternative theoretical framework to communicative competence—interactional competence theory—as a replacement for communicative competence, because they believe that “individuals do not acquire a general, practice-independent competence; rather they acquire a practice-specific interactional competence by participating with more experienced others in specific interactive practices”. (He & Young, 1998, p.7)

Kramsch (1986, p.367) in her article ‘From Language Proficiency to Interactional Competence’ defines the term ‘interaction’ as “...interaction entails negotiating intended meanings, i.e., adjusting one’s speech to the effect one intends to have on the listener. It entails anticipating the listener’s response and possible misunderstandings, clarifying one’s own and the other intentions and arriving at the closed possible watch between intended, perceived, and anticipated meanings.” Therefore interactional competence is “a theory of the knowledge that participants bring to and realize in interaction and includes an account of how this knowledge is acquired” (Young 1999, p.118). For example, interactional details are important in sociocultural theories because ‘the language that we learn to use in these practices comes to us packaged with particular histories, already dialogized, spoken about, and evaluated and we encounter it already “used” (Hall 1995, p.218).

Interaction and the local nature of language competence are combined with another fundamental principle of the theory of interactional competence: co-construction. Co-construction is defined as “the joint creation of a form, interpretation, stance, action, activity, identity, institution, skill, ideology, emotion, or other culturally meaningful reality” (Jacoby & Ochs 1995, p.171) According to interactional competence, knowledge of language is jointly co-created by all participants in interaction (He & Young 1998; Young 1999).

B. *Interactional Competence and Spoken English Teaching*

1. **Research of communicative strategies in spoken English teaching**

Interactional competence differs from communicative competence in its focus on interactions from a constructivist approach to the development of spoken English—they believe that conversational competence is co-constructed by speakers involved in the conversation. Thus it calls for greater attention to interactions between learners. This approach is especially enlightening to researchers and language teachers in China because it is more applicable to the situation for the development of spoken English for Chinese students. Researches in second language acquisition and communicative competence derive a great deal from training to new immigrants who face a native language environment, but not all these theories and discoveries are applicable to the Chinese practice (Wang 2001, p.68). It is manifest that students in China practice their spoken English with Chinese classmates in a cultural context of Chinese society, and thus it is much more difficult for them to develop intercultural competence with peers in a homogeneous culture. The shift to interactional competence affirms the critical significance of practicing spoken English with Chinese fellow students.

The focus on interactional competence also highlights communicative strategies and raises strategic competence to a prevailing position in spoken English teaching and learning. Strategic competence has been acknowledged as a part of communicative competence for over two decades, but the teaching of spoken English has hardly incorporated any strategic element in communicative strategies. Therefore students in China need more training to enable them to fulfill interactional tasks in authentic situations. Some researchers such as Wen (1999) have already realized the importance of communicative strategies in spoken English teaching. Language teachers and researchers (Wang 2002; Zeng & Li, 2005; Kong, 2004) have experimented the incorporation of conversational strategies in spoken English teaching. Results show that students in the experiment group show better fluency in spoken English over those in the control group, and their confidence for spoken English improves significantly.

Despite such findings, there is hardly any textbook of spoken English in China that devotes a special section to communicative strategies or even mentions them at all. In fact, the classification of communicative strategies per se is subject to controversy, and some researchers even disapprove of the training of communicative strategies by the allegation that communicative strategies in the first language can transfer to second language acquisition (Kong, 2004, p.4). However, there is no denying that training in communicative strategies has yielded tangible progress in learners’ spoken English. It is high time that teachers paid due attention to this issue.

2. **The integration of communicative strategies in interactional competence**

Despite the fact that a growing number of language teachers have realized the importance of incorporating communicative strategies in the development of learners’ communicative competence, there seems to be a gap between

theory and practice, which hinders the integration and application of communicative strategies in spoken English practice. On the one hand, some teachers offer sample conversational situations that feature broken or discrete functional skills rather than complete conversations of interaction; on the other hand, they impart communicative strategies to students, hoping that these strategies will enhance their performance in the interaction. It is evident that the discrete functional skills as a continuance of traditional grammatical drills are simply incompatible with interaction-based communicative strategies. Therefore when communicative strategies are evaluated with the orientation of interactional competence, these strategies are best taught or learned in interactions. To be specific, interactions in classroom teaching should be embodied in complete loops of conversation because a loop is a unit of conversation in which communicative strategies can be effectively evaluated. Moreover, the constructivist nature of interactional competence presupposes that communicative strategies can be co-constructed by peers during a loop of conversation—learners do not merely learn the strategies, but construct them during the real situations. Under the guidance of this principle, learners are expected to develop their communicative strategies in such a linear model:

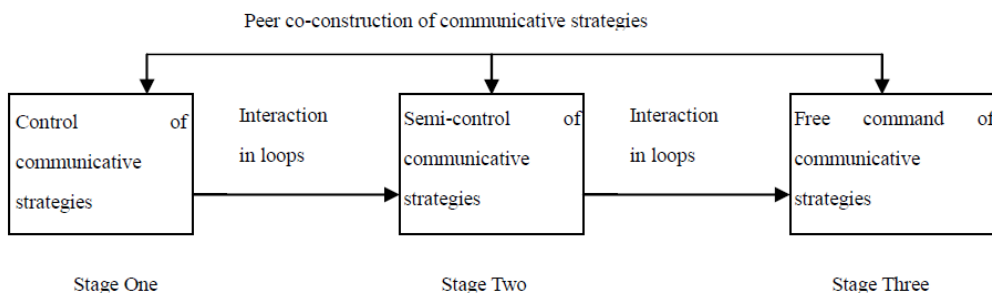


Figure 4 The development of learners' communicative strategies by interaction

As shown in the figure, to achieve the goal of developing learners' interactional competence, learners should learn to co-construct their communicative strategies in interactions. As a result, their interactional competence grows alongside with their practice of communicative strategies in conversational loops. At the beginning (Stage One), they need good control and supervision of communicative strategies that are taught to them by teachers. Gradually, with their practice in interactions, their awareness of these strategies improves, and the control of communicative strategies by teachers recedes and finally learners can command these strategies with ease and proficiency. Therefore the author proposes that the traditional discrete functional-notional situation for communication should be expanded to a complete loop of conversation, with communicative strategies serving as links between different functions. Thus a model of strategy-reinforced interactions can be illustrated in the following sample:

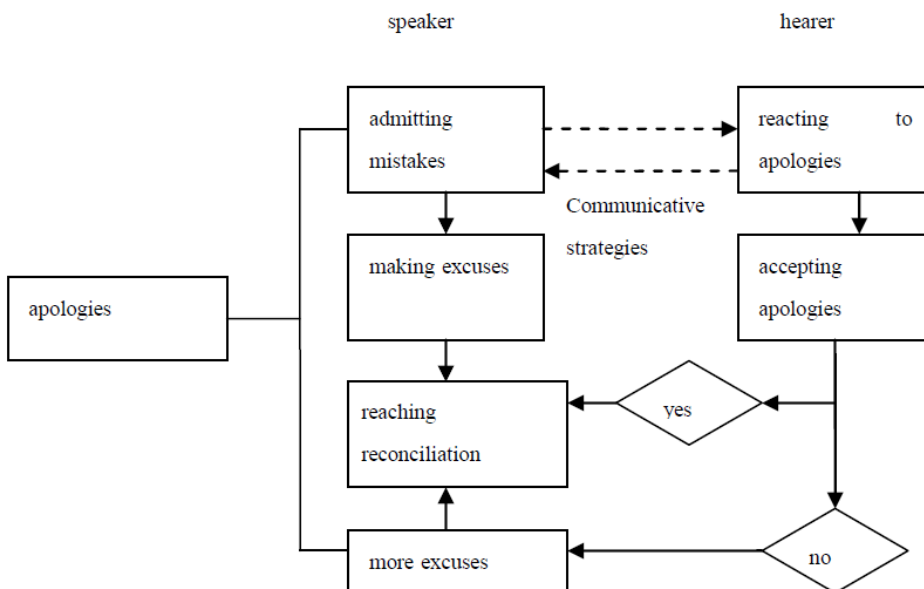


Figure 5 A conversational loop of strategy-reinforced interaction: apology and reconciliation

This demonstrates a complete conversational loop in which the speaker interacts with the listener on making apologies. Both of them learn to use communicative strategies to keep the conversation going smoothly and reduce unnecessary frictions and misunderstandings. A complete loop will also include different possibilities so that learners will learn to apply the strategies to handling different alternatives that may arise in real communicative situations. During different stages or possibilities of interactions, learners co-construct their knowledge of strategic competence

and improve their fluency and confidence.

In interactional practice of communicative strategies, teachers should preferably combine “situations” with “functions” or “notions” to achieve a simulated virtual environment. Here the author suggests a constructivist approach to spoken English learning, as it will expectedly stimulate learners’ motivation and enthusiasm towards co-construction of knowledge. For instance, a collaborative learning project targeting at reaching a business agreement through negotiation can be established in the light of project-based learning (PBL). With the purpose of building better interactional competence, this project will require learners to accomplish all the inevitable conversational loops during the negotiation process, during which they will actively translate communicative strategies into action. Thus it constitutes a strategy-reinforced interactional situation for the practice of spoken English.

C. Interactional Competence and Spoken English Testing

Spoken English tests in China constitute an integral part in many influential examinations such as Business English Certificate examination (BEC), TOEFL and College Entrance Examinations. They are also optional components in College English Tests (CET), Test for English Majors (TEM), and other examinations. With the ever-growing concern of learners over spoken English communicative competence, a large number of students take different spoken English tests. Therefore the design of spoken English tests will be closely associated with classroom teaching.

Given the focus on interactional competence in this paper, it is natural to assume that spoken English tests should preferably test the conversational strategies and skills of candidates. Wen Qiufang’s model for communicative interview can be classified as follows (1999, p.46):

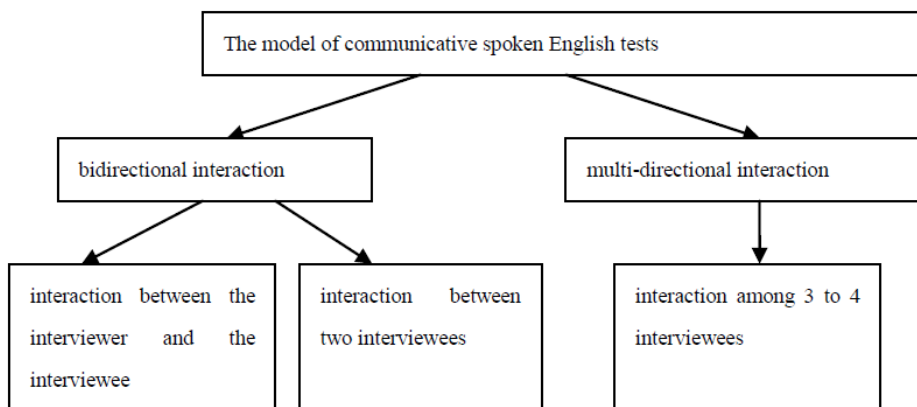


Figure 6 The model of communicative spoken English tests

Today, some large-scale spoken English tests such as BEC, IELTS, and TEM-4 spoken English test have adopted such communicative approaches with supervised interactions between the interviewer and the interviewee or interactions between different interviewees (Xu & Xie, 2006, p.97), but some examinations such as the spoken English test for Shanghai College Entrance Examination is still implemented in the structural approach in a uni-directional approach. The candidates listen to the directions from the earphones, study the pictures on the computer screen before them, and respond to questions. Their responses are recorded in the computer and stored for future evaluation. The test is composed of the following sections (Zhang, 2004):

- Part 1: Quick Response (10%)
- Part 2: Question Raising (20%)
- Part 3: Reading (10%)
- Part 4: Topic Talking (30%)
- Part 5: Picture Describing (30%)

Communicative skills are tested in Quick Response section in which candidates are required to make proper responses quickly to the communicative situation, but they are not allowed to raise any question as follow-up. In classroom teaching, such responses have been taught and habitualized so that candidates just make automatic responses to regular questions such as invitations, making apologies and talking about hobbies. However, whether or not they can react to new questions in the communicative situation remains unknown. Part 2 and 3 are solely about the linguistic skills. There is no interaction in Part 4 and 5 either. This spoken English test is a typical one in China today. In light of this, the interactional competence still deserves enough attention from teachers and researchers.

In many Chinese universities, spoken English tests have also been implemented either in a uni-directional approach or in the format of conversation between the interviewer and the interviewee. The author suggests that in the light of interactional competence, students should be allowed to interact with each other in a team of two or three during the interview, thereby creating a complete loop of conversation. In this way students will better utilize their expertise of conversational strategies and create a virtual environment for communicative functions. The interviewer can also make better holistic judgment about their spoken English performance by studying the whole loop of conversation and all the conversational strategies involved.

IV. CONCLUSION

Communicative competence as a concept that derives from the dichotomy of linguistic competence and linguistic performance by Noam Chomsky has been widely accepted and extensively studied during the past three decades, but the teaching of spoken English in China has largely neglected the development of strategic competence. By shifting to interactional competence in a constructivist approach, teachers and researchers can gain better insight into the acquisition of spoken competence. Thus two hints are discovered for today's spoken English teachers: first, conversational strategies should constitute an integral part in teaching spoken English because they are the lubricants for smooth turn-taking and shifts; second, priority in spoken English teaching and testing should be given to complete conversational loops because the loop as an integral unit for conversation can best display the speakers' co-construction of strategic competence and communicative skills. A strategy-reinforced interaction that is taught in the form of complete conversational loops will hopefully strengthen students' competence for handling these interactional activities and achieve better communicative competence.

To achieve this goal, classroom teaching alone does not suffice. As shown in Table 1, communicative strategies are not yet included in the university textbooks for spoken English teaching. Without authoritative resources for the teaching of communicative strategies, it will be hard for teachers to implement them in classroom teaching. As a consequence, it is no wonder that students show poor awareness of communicative strategies in spoken English tests. Therefore it is advisable that such a strategy-reinforced interactional approach should be implemented throughout all components of college English teaching—from textbook compilation, classroom teaching to testing. A textbook compiled under the guidance of this principle will hopefully enhance the effect of spoken English teaching in the classroom, which will be examined and verified subsequently in spoken English tests. Such a reform to spoken English teaching will be an enormous systematic project and will not be made possible without due concern and support from language teachers and researchers. Therefore it is expected that this paper will contribute to better knowledge of communicative competence in the light of strategy-reinforced interactions and hence improve the teaching efficiency throughout all components of spoken English teaching in Chinese universities.

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A Sociolinguistic Investigation of Social Stratification and Linguistic Variation among the Kashmiri Speech Community

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Abstract—This paper is restricted to the investigation of linguistic variation among the Kashmiri speakers at the level of *phonology and lexicon* of their language in accordance with certain social variables, viz-a-viz *religion, education, region / socioeconomic status, age and occupation*. In the present paper, an effort has been devoted to examine as to how the structure of the Kashmiri language varies at the level of phonology and lexicon, in accordance with above mentioned social variables. It also takes into account the possible reasons behind this variation. The present paper explores as to how the social heterogeneity of the Kashmiri speech community is reflected in the linguistic behavior of its speakers, and gives rise to variations in the use of their language at the level of phonology and lexicon. The paper begins with giving a brief introduction about language variation, social variables, and linguistic variables. It also discusses the historical perspective of language variation, and throws light on the related literature by discussing some important studies of variation carried out by different scholars of linguistics from time to time. In this study an attempt has been made to picture the social structure of the Kashmiri speech community in terms of its social stratification/ and social heterogeneity. The paper also discusses the research methodology adopted in carrying out this study.

Index Terms—social heterogeneity, linguistic variation, linguistic variables, sociolinguistic variables, speech community, registers, phonological variation, lexical variation

I. INTRODUCTION

During the last few decades sociolinguistics has emerged as an autonomous field of study and research. It has gained a global momentum and has been recognized all over the world. It is rightly concerned with the ways in which language interacts in a society and functions in a particular social set up. The scholars of sociolinguistics have been taking keen interest in language problems like language use in multilingual settings, language maintenance and language shift, language standardization and language modernization, language and culture, ethnography of communication, communicative competence, language choice, language change, language variation etc.

Linguistic variation is central to the study of language use. It is an inherent property of almost all widely used languages of the world. In fact, it is impossible to study the language forms used in natural atmosphere without being confused with the issue of linguistic variation. Languages vary according to the social characteristics of the speakers. They also vary according to the situations in which their users find themselves. No living language can afford to remain static. It must vary according to given social circumstances.

Right from the beginning of the second half of the twentieth century, language variation has been the focus of attention for linguists, sociolinguists, and language scientists. It has emerged out to be a fascinating field of research and enquiry right from the emergence of sociolinguistics. It has fascinated and continues to fascinate a lot of people with a wide variety of backgrounds. Language variation in sociolinguistics refers to variation in linguistic items in accordance with social variation. The social factors such as religion, region, education, age, occupation, socioeconomic levels/status etc. are responsible for variation in language and the resultant linguistic items are called *linguistic* or *sociolinguistic variables*. Since language variation takes place because of social variation, the linguistic and social variables are correlated.

A. Historical Perspective of Language Variation

The history of varying property of language is of course as old as the language itself. This property of language has always been a subject of discussion among a large number of language researchers and language scientists from time to time. The early well documented record of research in this field dates back to the first half of the twentieth century. These records are mainly associated with Edward Sapir (1915) and K. Jaberger (1936). However towards the second half of the twentieth century, the credit for carrying out the empirical work for the first time in this regard goes to William Labov.

Peter Trudgill (1983) argues that the first and foremost study related to field of ‘language and society’, which serves the linguistic purpose, is the empirical study of ‘sound change’. This study of sound change was carried out by William

Labov in 1961 in a very small island called Maratha's Vineyard. This study of Labov is generally regarded as pioneering work in studying language in relation to its social context. In his study of Maratha's Vineyard, Labov (1972, chapters 1 and 7) logically described the existence of systematic differences among the speakers in their use of certain linguistic variables. Peter Trudgill (1983) admits that "much work of this type falls within the framework established first and foremost by William Labov, and consists of work which Labov himself has sometimes referred to as secular linguistics" (Trudgill, 1983, pp. 2-3).

In fact, it is dialectology which has been the main source of evidence for the social history of speech variation. Moreover, there are a considerable number of studies, investigations, and surveys, exploring the relationship between speech and social groups. In their investigations on Italian dialects K. Jaberger (1915) and Jacob (1936) have observed considerable variations among the speakers of different groups speaking these dialects (Gumperz, 1971, p. 79).

B. Review of the Related Literature

As stated earlier, the phenomenon of linguistic variation has always attracted the attention of sociolinguists. It has also been the subject of debate and discussion among various sociologists and the researchers of language. These scholars have dealt with the problems of variation in different ways, which has given rise to formulation of various theories about linguistic variation from time to time.

John J. Gumperz's name is associated with those scholars of linguistics who contributed to the field of linguistic variation extraordinarily. The methodology used by him for the classification of dialect differences has been outlined in one of his articles published in 1958. For carrying out his study, Gumperz selected a village called Khalapur as a place for his data collection. This village is located in the Saharanpur District of Uttar Pradesh, India. Khalapur is surrounded by Khari Boli, a dialect of Western Hindi speaking belt. But, in Khalapur the villagers use Hindi fairly in their daily communication in various domains of their social life (Grierson, 1971, p. 27-28). Gumperz (1971), states that "Khalapur inhabitants are divided by profound differences in ritual status, wealth, political power, occupation and education, affecting every aspect of their daily life". (p.158). In his study, Gumperz (1958) found a direct relationship between the linguistic variation and caste membership. His study very clearly shows how social heterogeneity is reflected in the linguistic style of speakers.

Another important type of variation which has been most commonly noticed in American speech is related to the differing use of language in '*formal*' and '*informal*' situations. A kind of theory exploring this type of variation has been proposed by J.L. Fisher as early as in 1958. His theory was fully devoted to study the use of [ŋ] variable in certain 'formal' situations i.e. the pronunciation in words like- *singing* with [ŋ] versus *singin* without [ŋ]. Fischer (1958) observed that most Americans can confirm pronunciation like *huntin* found more commonly in 'informal' settings while the pronunciations like *hunting* with [ŋ] found in the most 'formal' situations. Here the terms 'formality' and 'informality' have been defined in terms of a particular society or a particular speech community. The style of speech used in formal versus informal situations are highly standardized and strictly differentiated. Ferguson (1959) has used the term '*diaglossia*' for this type of linguistic variation and has described it in Arabic, Swiss, German, Haitian, French and Modern Greek.

Labov (1972) observes that "it is common for a language to have many alternate ways of saying 'the same thing' (p.188). Some words like *car* and *automobile*, do have the same referents; others have two pronunciations like *working* (with [ŋ] variant) and *workin* (without [ŋ]variant). There are syntactic options such as *Who is he talking to?* Versus *To whom he is talking?* Or *It's easy for him to talk* versus *For him to talk is easy* (Labov, 1972, 188).

Labov (1972) also observed that it is the social structure of a speech community which has something to do with the change in the linguistic behavior of its speakers. Furthermore, Labov (1972) asserts that "internal structure pressures and the sociolinguistic pressures act systematic alternation in the mechanism of linguistic change" (Labov, 1972, P.181).

While studying relationship between language and society, Trudgill (1974) came up with the view that the linguistic variation to which he called '*fuzziness*' is the direct result of social variation (Trudgill,1974).Trudgill (1974) admits that the social structure is reflected in the linguistic behavior of the speech community and social variation can produce linguistic variation.

Wardhaugh (1986) asserts that "when we look closely at any language, we will discover time and again that there is a considerable internal variation, and that speakers make constant use of many different possibilities offered to them" (Wardhaugh, 1986, p.5). Since each language exists in a number of different forms, the speakers make the use of these different varieties according to situations and no individual speaker speaks in the same way all the time. Wardhaugh (1986) also admits that the dynamic model suggested by Bailey and Bickerton in 1973 emphasized the individual speech behavior to which they called the '*idiolect*' whereas the others were concerned with group behavior to which they termed as the '*sociolect*'. They theorized that one individual controls one idiolect of the language and the other controls another one, and these '*lects*' considerably vary from one another (Wardhaugh, 1986).

C. Social and Linguistic Variables

1. Social Variables

Almost all sociolinguistic studies and investigations are concerned with the ways wherein language varies according to the social context in which it is used. Languages also change according to the social group to which their speakers belong. As a matter of fact, no modern speech community offers to be a homogeneous one. In every speech community

there is a social stratification or social heterogeneity. This social heterogeneity is reflected in the language use of its speakers and gives rise to speech variation among them. This is because of the fact that language and society are closely related. Therefore, it can be said that linguistic variation is closely related to social variation. This is also true to say that linguistic variation is due to the social variation. It is a well-established fact that for the linguistic variation certain social factors/ social variables such as religion, region (place of living/socioeconomic status), education, age and occupation are quite responsible. These social variables have been seen to modify the structure of language considerably and give rise to linguistic variation.

2. Linguistic Variables

The concept of linguistic variable is an outcome of research in The field of linguistic variation. Scholars have developed tools necessary for the identification of linguistic variation among different social groups. Hudson (1986), states that “the linguistic variables which sociolinguists have studied are those where the meaning remains constant but the form varies (Hudson, 1986, p.157)”. For instance, two different forms ‘*cat*’ and ‘*pussy*’ are supposed to have same meaning and could therefore be considered as a linguistic variable. In the same way, the alternative pronunciation of ‘*house*’ with and without [h] can also be treated as an example of linguistic (variable Hudson, 1986).

Wardhaugh (1986) ,admits that” a linguistic variable is a linguistic item which has identifiable variants”.(p.135). Wardhaugh (1986) further argues that the words like ‘*singing*’ and ‘*fishing*’ are sometimes pronounced by some speakers as ‘*singin*’ and ‘*fishin*’ respectively. The final sound in these words is called the linguistic variable [ŋ]with its two variants as [ŋ]in ‘*singing*’ and ‘*fishing*’ and [n] in ‘*singin*’ and ‘*fishin*’. Another example of the linguistic variable is found in the words like ‘*car*’ and ‘*card*’. These words are sometimes assigned the r less pronunciation by some speakers. Thus, in a way we can see the linguistic variable (r) with its two alternative forms or variants [r] and Ø (pronounced as ‘zero’) (Wardhaugh, 1986).

II. METHODOLOGY

The present study follows the same pattern of the research methodology as adopted by other scholars of sociolinguistics while carrying out similar sociolinguistic investigations. The study is purely data oriented, and the entire data has been collected from a sample of 105 subjects/respondents, who are the native speakers of the Kashmiri language. The subjects/respondents have been selected in such a way that they were the true representatives of the whole Kashmiri speech community. It has also been made sure that they belong to different social levels, groups, and sects of the society.

A. Objectives of the Study

The main objective of this study is to investigate as to how the social stratification or the social heterogeneity of the Kashmiri Speech Community is reflected in the linguistic behavior of its speakers and gives rise to variation among them in the use of their language at the level of phonology and lexicon in accordance with certain social variables. viz-a-viz religion, region (place of living/socioeconomic status) education, age and occupation.

B. Hypotheses

Keeping in view the main objectives of the present study and exploratory discussion with the members of the speech community under investigation, the following hypotheses have been formulated to be tested and verified.

i) As the structure of the Kashmiri language varies considerably, at various social levels of the Kashmiri speech community. The reason for this linguistic variability has to be explained in accordance with the social variation. This is because of the fact that linguistic variables are correlated with the social variables as language and society are closely related to each other.

ii) To investigate the linguistic variability of Kashmiri language and to relate it to social heterogeneity of the Kashmiri speech community, and to see how this social variation of the Kashmiri speech community is reflected in the structure of the Kashmiri language at various levels of its organization.

1. Data collection

The data for the present study has been collected by various methods, such as the distribution of the questionnaire, conducting interviews, and the investigator’s direct involvement in some conversations with various members of the speech community. As far as the places of data collection are concerned, they have been selected keeping in view the concentration of Kashmiri speakers belonging to different social groups. These places mainly include: entertainment parks, gardens, tourist spots, hostels, schools, colleges, bus stops, markets, paddy fields, orchards, government offices, hospitals, exhibition grounds, and other similar places. In order to get the data as natural as possible, the investigator also visited many villages, towns, urban centers, and some other common meeting places, where the people from different social backgrounds of the said speech community were easily available and had oral communication related to the matters of day-to-day life. The investigator also visited the different occupational groups of the speech community. The speakers belonging to different social groups, viz., farmers, office goers (teachers, doctors, lawyers, businessmen etc.), fisherman/ boatmen and businessmen have been approached and were asked some questions related to their respective occupations/professions and their responses were recorded in natural way.

2. Editing of the Data

It may be pointed out that the entire mass of the data collected was not useful for the purpose of the present study. Therefore, the irrelevant, weak, unwanted and doubtful portions of the data were weeded out and eliminated. In the process of editing, the weaknesses found in the data were rectified and made useful for the purpose.

3. Data Analysis

After the completion of editing the data, the resultant and the desired portion was analyzed. This process involved the verification of the proposed hypotheses of the present investigation to arrive at the right conclusion and desired results. Finally, the interpretation was done, i.e. the resultant data was tabulated. The tabulation of data facilitated the understanding of data and simplified its process of study.

III. RESULTS AND ANALYSIS

A. Social Structure of the Kashmiri Speech Community

The state of Jammu and Kashmir is the home to various sects of people. The people of this state belong to different social groups. Technically speaking, there is a social stratification or we may call it social heterogeneity in the Kashmiri Speech community. Kashmiri speakers are mainly concentrated in state of Jammu and Kashmir; particularly in the valley of Kashmir. Kashmiri is the principal regional and dominant majority language of the valley of Kashmir. It is predominantly spoken as the mother tongue by the entire population of the valley. Although due to the disturbed condition of the state quite a good number of Kashmiri speakers are settled outside the valley in different states and union territories of India, they maintain their language i.e. Kashmiri.

Kashmiri speech community is predominantly a Muslim majority community. Second to Muslims are Hindus, constituting a microscopic population in the valley of Kashmir. Although the people of these two faiths share the same language as their mother tongue and live together in a very congenial and friendly set of circumstances, but they vary considerably from social, cultural and religious points of view. As a matter of fact, the common surnames among the Muslims and Hindus like Bhat, Raina, Pandit, Koul, Shah, Bakhshi etc. are not even going to bridge the socio-cultural gap between these two communities who have been living together for centuries. Most of the Muslims are agriculturalists and the majority of Hindus belong predominantly to service and office going class. Thus the variable **religion** divides the speech community into two groups of speaker's viz., Hindu Kashmiri speakers and Muslim Kashmir speakers

On the basis of **region** (place of living/ socioeconomic status), the Kashmiri speech community comprises two main groups of speakers i.e. the urban Kashmiri speakers and the rural Kashmiri speakers. The Kashmiri speakers living in the city of Srinagar and in its vicinity are the urban Kashmiri speakers and those who live in the rest parts of the valley other than the city of Srinagar are considered as rural Kashmiri speakers. The rural Kashmiri speakers are mostly the agriculturalists. They are also by and large disadvantaged in the field of education as compared to their urban counterparts. The urban Kashmiri speakers on the other hand, constitute the business class, the educated elite and the less advantaged labor. There are of course rich and educated agriculturalists in rural areas too, but their number is quite low. There are also a considerable number of rural people who have migrated towards the urban centers where they found good educational and other facilities for themselves as well as for their children.

As a matter of fact, every individual of the society doesn't have equal opportunity to get education. Therefore, some are literates and others have grown as illiterates. There is no denying the fact that the highly educated and literate class of the Kashmiri society hails from the urban areas and the rural Kashmiri speakers have been lagging behind in the field of education. The reason for this little percentage of literacy among the rural Kashmiri speakers is their rural and agricultural background. As they are busy in looking after their agricultural lands, they pay little attention to education. **Education** is thus in a way another important social variable on the basis of which the entire speech community has been divided into two groups of speakers viz. literate speakers (E1) and illiterate speakers (E2). Similarly, on the basis of variable **age** we have two age groups A1 (15-50 years) and A2 (50 years and above).

In order to make their living and earn their bread, the people of the Kashmiri society like other living societies of the world have entered different **occupations** and **professions**. The main occupational groups of the Kashmiri speech community are: farmers, office goers (teachers, doctors and lawyers), boatmen/fishermen and businessmen/traders.

B. Linguistic Variation among the Kashmiri Speech Community

Language variation is the direct outcome of social variation because language and society are closely related to each other. The social heterogeneity of Kashmiri speech community is prominently reflected in the linguistic behavior of Kashmiri speakers and leads them to vary considerably in the use of their language at various levels of linguistics. The resultant linguistic variables are the indicators of one's social identity. The variation in language among the Kashmiri speech community at the level of phonology and lexicon has been found in accordance with social variables viz., religion, region (place of living/socioeconomic status), education, age and occupation/profession. This linguistic variation among the Kashmiri speakers is of course due to the social variation of the Kashmiri speech community. Individuals of two different social groups have not been seen to follow the same pattern and same structure of the language. Different speakers of the same language have been seen to express same meanings using different forms. They are bound to vary in their linguistic usage as they differ socially.

Phonological Variation among Kashmiri Speakers.

The social heterogeneity of the Kashmiri speech community is very prominently reflected in the speech of its speakers which shows variations of various types. These variations have been observed and analyzed in terms of differences in the use of consonants, vowels, semi-vowels, and vowel sequences correlating with certain social variables in their society. Given below are some phonological variables with their corresponding social variables of the Kashmiri speech community.

1. Phonological Variation due to Religious Differences

1.1 Consonants

Religion is an important social factor which divides the Kashmiri Speech Community into two main groups of speakers, viz., The Hindu Kashmiri Speakers and the Muslim Kashmiri Speakers. The variety of Kashmiri spoken by Hindu Kashmiris may be termed as the Hindu Kashmiri (HK), and the variety of the same language spoken by their Muslim counterparts may be called the Muslim Kashmiri (MK). These two groups of speakers of the same language have been seen to vary considerably in the use of the sound system of the said language. Grierson (1919) states that the main reason behind this variation is that the form of Kashmiri spoken by the Hindu Kashmiri Speakers is filled with the vocabulary items borrowed from the Sanskrit sources, and the variety of Kashmiri spoken by the Muslim Kashmiri speakers is mostly filled with the lexicon of the Persian and Arabic origin. These two varieties were later called by Kachru (1969) ‘Sanskritized’ and ‘Persianized’ Kashmiri respectively. (Kachru, 1969).

1.1.1. Variation of voiced alveolar trill [r] and voiced unaspirated retroflex stop [d]

The variation of [r] and [d] reflects religious differences among the speakers of the Kashmiri speech community. The Kashmiri equivalents for ‘rat’ and ‘horse’ are pronounced by the Hindu Kashmiri speakers as *gagur* and *gur* respectively, whereas the Muslim speakers (rural Muslim speakers only) of the same language pronounce these words as *gagud* and *gud* respectively. Thus, the final sound in these words may be termed as linguistic variable (**r**) with its two variants [r] as in *gagur* ‘rat’ and *gur* ‘horse’ and [d] as in *gagud* ‘rat’ and *gud* ‘horse’. It may be pointed out that Hindu Kashmiri speakers irrespective of their region (urban or rural) of their living and socioeconomic status use the urban variety of Kashmiri. Following table shows more examples of this type of variation.

TABLE 2.1:
VARIATION OF [R] AND [D] AMONG THE HINDU AND MUSLIM KASHMIRI SPEAKERS

Hindu Kashmiri Speakers (HK)	Muslim Kashmiri Speakers (MK)	Gloss
/nər/	/nəd/	‘arm’
/ʃUr/	/ʃUd/	‘child’
/kəkUr/	/kəkUd/	‘cock’
/zər/	/zəd/	‘deaf’
/həgUr/	/həgUd/	‘wooden cart’
/brɔ:r/	/brɔ:d/	‘cat’
/ku:r/	/ku:d/	‘daughter’
/tsər/	/tsəd/	‘sparrow’
/gər/	/gəd/	‘watch’
/lu:r/	/lu:d/	‘stick’
/nər/	/nəd/	‘jug’
/kər/	/kəd/	‘neck’
/vər/	/vəd/	‘kitchen garden’
/kər/	/kəd/	‘bangle’
/çər/	/çəd/	‘dumb’
/dər/	/dəd/	‘beard’
/pər/	/pəd/	‘hut’
/gər/	/gəd/	‘fish’
/dər/	/dəd/	‘hard’
/lər/	/ləd/	‘cucumber’

1.1.2 Variation due to the deletion of [ət], [əts] and [əč]

It has been noticed that in some of the loanwords of the Perso-Arabic sources, the final sounds like [ət], [əts] and [əč] which are optionally deleted in the speech of Muslim Kashmiri speakers (MK), are somehow retained in the speech of their Hindu counterparts (HK). Some examples justifying this fact are given below:

TABLE 2.2
VARIATION DUE TO DELETION AND RETENTION OF [ƏT] AND [ƏTS] AMONG HINDU AND MUSLIM KASHMIRI SPEAKERS.

Hindu Kashmiri Speakers (HK)	Muslim Kashmiri Speakers (MK)	Gloss
/sakhət/	/sakh/	‘hard’
/makəts/	/makh/	‘axe’
/vakhət/	/vakh/	‘time’
/ta:khəč/	/ta:kh/	‘shelf(of a window)’

1.2 Vowels

1.2.1. Variation of mid back rounded long vowel [o:] and low central long vowel [a:]

One of the most striking variations due to the religious differences among the speakers of the Kashmiri speech community has been found to be the variation of *mid back rounded long vowel* [o:] and *low central long vowel* [a:]. In their use of past participle and past perfect tense forms, a set of verbs in the speech of Muslim Kashmiri speakers (MK)

has different phonological equivalents from their Hindu counterparts (HK). These variations have been observed when the Kashmiri speakers talk about or refer only to the male individuals and masculine object. Some examples of showing this type of variation are listed below:

TABLE 2.3
VARIATION OF [O:] AND [A:] AMONG THE HINDU AND THE MUSLIM KASHMIRI SPEAKERS

Hindu Kashmiri Speakers (HK)	Muslim Kashmiri Speakers (MK)	Gloss
/ ðra:mUt /	/ ðro:mUt	'had gone'
/ tsa:mUt /	/ tso:mUt /	'had entered'
/ a:mUt /	/ o:mUt /	'had come'
/ r a:mUt /	/ ro:mUt /	'had lost'
/ ha:umUt /	/ ho:umUt /	'had shown'
/ tra:umUt /	/ tro:umUt /	'dropped/put/delivered'

1.2.2 Variation of *mid central unrounded long vowel* [ə:] and *low central long vowel* [a:]

Another similar variation among the speakers of the same speech community on the basis of religious differences pertaining to the same set of grammatical categories has been noticed in the use of *mid central unrounded long vowel* [ə:] in the speech of Muslim speakers (MK) with its alternative form, i.e. the *low central long vowel* [a:] in the speech of Hindu speakers (HK). On the contrary, these variations have been noticed to come into being when both the categories of the speakers refer to or talk only about the female individuals and feminine objects. Some examples of this type of variation are given below:

TABLE 2.4
VARIATION OF [ə:] AND [A:] AMONG THE HINDU AND THE MUSLIM KASHMIRI SPEAKERS

Hindu Kashmiri Speakers (HK)	Muslim Kashmiri Speakers (MK)	Gloss
/ ðra:mits /	/ ðrə:mits /	'had gone'
/ tsa:mits /	/ tsə:mits /	'had entered'
/ a:mits /	/ ə:mits /	'had come'
/ ra:mits /	/ rə:mits /	'had lost'
/ ha:mits /	/ hə:mits /	'shown'
/ tra:mits /	/ trə:mits /	'dropped/put/delivered'

1.2.3 Variation of *low central short vowel* [a] and *mid front unrounded short vowel* [e]

While using the past tense forms of certain verbs, *low central short vowel* [a] in the speech of Hindu Kashmiri speakers (HK) is replaced by *mid front unrounded short vowel* [e] in the speech of their Muslim counterparts (MK). Following table shows the examples of this type of variation.

TABLE 2.5
VARIATION OF [A] AND [E] AMONG THE HINDU AND THE MUSLIM KASHMIRI SPEAKERS

Hindu Kashmiri Speakers (HK)	Muslim Kashmiri Speakers (MK)	Gloss
/ ðopmas /	/ ðopmes /	'I told him/her'
/ ðopnas /	/ ðopnes /	'he/she told him/her'
/ ðyutnas /	/ ðyutnes /	'he/she gave it to him/her'
/ ðyutmas /	/ ðyutmes /	'I gave it to him/her'
/ hyotmas /	/ hyotmes /	'I bought it for him/her'
/ hyotnas /	/ hyotnes /	'I took it from him/her'
/ hyotmas /	/ hyotmes /	'he/she bought for him/her'
/ rotmas /	/ rotmes /	'I had it from him/her'
/ neumas /	/ neumes /	'I took it from him/her'
/ neumas /	/ neumes /	'I gave it to him/her'
/ neunas /	/ neunes /	'he/she took it from him/her'
/ neunas /	/ neunes /	'he/she gave it to him/her'
/ lyokhmas /	/ lyokhmes /	'I wrote to him/her'
/ lyokhnas /	/ lyokhnes /	'he/she wrote to him/her'
/ vUčhmas /	/ vUčhmes /	'I saw it with him/her'
/ vUčhnas /	/ vUčhnes /	'he/she him/her'
/ čhavan /	/ čhevanes /	'drinking/drinks'

2. Phonological Variation due to Difference in Educational Level

It has been noticed that the literate (E1) speakers of the speech community under study pronounce a large number of words quite differently from their illiterate (E2) counterparts. They have been seen to show great affinity towards the standard variety of Kashmiri. The main reason behind this variation is that a majority of the speakers from literate (E1) group are office goers and have more opportunities to remain in contact with the speakers of the standard variety of Kashmiri. As a matter of fact, the speakers of the illiterate (E2) group have been found to use the non-standard variety of Kashmiri in their day-to-day conversation.

Vowels and Semi-vowels

2.1 Variation in the use of *high front unrounded short vowel* [i] and *voiced palatal frictionless continuant semivowel* [y]

The Kashmiri equivalents for ‘wait’ and ‘arrangement’ are pronounced as *intiza:r* and *intiza:m* respectively by the speakers belonging to literate (E1) group of Kashmiri speakers. The speakers of the illiterate (E2) group pronounce the same words as *yintiza:r* ‘leader’ and *yintiza:m* ‘arrangement’. On the basis of such examples, it can be stated that some words of the Perso-Arabic origin beginning with high front unrounded short vowel [i] used by the literate (E1) speakers are prefixed by the frictionless continuant semi-vowel [y] by illiterate (E2) group of speakers in their speech. Other examples of this type of variation are tabulated as below:

TABLE 2.6
VARIATION OF [I] AND [Y] AMONG THE LITERATE (E1) AND ILLITERATE KASHMIRI SPEAKERS

Literate Kashmiri Speakers (E1)	Illiterate Kashmiri Speakers (E2)	Gloss
/inka:r/	/yinka:r /	‘refusal’
/ibti ða: /	/yibti ða: /	‘beginning’
/intiha: /	/yintiha: /	‘extreme’
/iltija: /	/yiltija: /	‘request’
/izha:r /	/yizha:r /	‘expression’
/isla: /	/yisla: /	‘reform/shave’
/idra:r /	/yidra:r /	‘urine’
/itla: /	/yitla: /	‘information’
/intika:m /	/yintika:m /	‘revenge’
/inkila:b /	/yinkila:b /	‘revolution’
/ima:m /	/yima:m /	‘religious leader’
/istiða: /	/yistiða: /	‘resignation’
/ikhtila:φ /	/yikhtila:φ /	‘difference/dispute’
/iḡtiya:r /	/yiḡtiya:r /	‘opening the fast’
/inša:ala: /	/yinša:ala: /	‘if God wishes’
/imtiha:n	/ymtiha:n /	‘examination’

2.2 Variation of mid front unrounded short vowel [e] and voiced palatal frictionless continuant semivowel [y]

A similar type of phonological variation due to difference in educational level has been found due to varied use of mid front unrounded short vowel [e] and voiced palatal frictionless continuant semivowel [y]. Quite a good number of words of Perso-Arabic origin beginning with mid front short vowel [e] in the speech of the literate (E1) speakers of Kashmiri have been found to be prefixed with voiced palatal frictionless continuant semi-vowel [y] by the illiterate (E2) speakers of the same language. Some examples depicting this type of variation are given below:

TABLE 2.7
VARIATION OF [E] AND [Y] AMONG THE LITERATE (E1) AND ILLITERATE [E2] KASHMIRI SPEAKERS

Literate Kashmiri Speakers (E1)	Illiterate Kashmiri Speakers (E2)	Gloss
/ela:j /	/yela:j /	‘treatment’
/ekhla:k /	/yekhla:k /	‘behavior/manners’
/ehsa:n /	/yehsa:n /	‘obligation’
/ela:n /	/yela:n /	‘announcement’
/ema:m /	/yena:m /	‘award’
/ekhteya:r /	/yekhteya:r /	‘option’
/eteða:k /	/yeteða:k /	‘agreement’
/ekra:r /	/yekra:r /	‘acceptance’

3. Phonological Variation due to Regional and Socioeconomic differences

Among the Kashmiri speech community there are regional differences and for that matter the urban (UK) and rural speakers (RK) show considerable variations in their speech at the level of phonology. Some of the phonological variables commonly found among the Kashmiri speakers belonging to two different regions are discussed below:

3.1 Vowels

3.1.1 Variation of high back rounded short vowel [U] and mid central unrounded short vowel [i]

It has been observed that the high back rounded short vowel [U] in some monosyllabic and in the first syllable of some disyllabic words in the speech of urban Kashmiri speakers (UK) is replaced by mid central unrounded short vowel [i] in the speech of rural Kashmiri speakers (RK), giving rise to phonological variation among the said speech community at a very large scale. Examples showing this type of variation are shown below:

TABLE 2.8
VARIATION OF [U] AND [Ø] AMONG THE URBAN AND RURAL KASHMIRI SPEAKERS

Urban Kashmiri Speakers (UK)	Rural Kashmiri Speakers (RK)	Gloss
/bUd /	/bid /	‘old lady’
/bUdi /	/bidi /	‘old man’
/vUčh /	/vičh /	‘see/saw’
/lučhi /	/ličhi /	‘thin’

3.1.2 Variation of low central long vowel [a:] and low central short vowel [a]

Another remarkable variation observed at the phonological level among the Kashmiri speakers on the basis of region is the use of low central long vowel [a:] in the speech of urban speakers (UK) versus the use of low central short vowel [a] in the speech of their rural(RK) counterparts. This lengthening of low central long vowel [a:] in simple present and

present progressive tense forms of verbs is a typical and striking feature found in the speech of urban Kashmiri speakers (UK) which clearly differentiates them from the rural speakers (RK) of the same language with their typical use of *low central short vowel* [a] in the same set of the verb forms. For example, the words (verbs) *karan* ‘doing/does’ and *khevan* ‘eating/eats’ pronounced so by the rural Kashmiri speakers(RK) are pronounced as *kara:n* ‘doing/does’ and *kheva:n* ‘eating/eats’ respectively by their urban counterparts(UK). This alternation/variation in the use of language among urban (UK) and rural (RK) Kashmiri speakers is so remarkable and noticeable that even a non-Kashmiri is able to observe it. Some more examples showing this type of phonological variation are tabulated below:

TABLE 2.9
VARIATION [A:] AND [A] AMONG THE URBAN AND RURAL KASHMIRI SPEAKERS

Urban Kashmiri Speakers (UK)	Rural Kashmiri Speakers (RK)	Gloss
/ gatsha:n /	/ gatshan /	‘going / goes /
/ dava:n /	/davan /	‘running/runs’
/ yiva:n /	/ yivan /	‘coming / comes’
/ dUva:n /	/ dUvan /	‘sweeping/ sweeps’
/ roza:n /	/ rozan /	‘living/ lives’
/ heva:n /	/ hevan /	‘buying/buy’
/ ana:n /	/ anan /	‘bringing / brings
/ va ða:n /	/ va ðn /	‘weeping / weeps’
/ čava:n /	/ čavan /	‘drinking / drinks’
/ sUva:n /	/ sUvan /	‘stitching / stitches’
/ khana:n /	/ khanan /	‘digging/ digs’
/ zana:n /	/ zanan /	‘knowing /knows /
/ tsh ða:n /	/ tsh ðan /	‘looking /looks for’

3.1.3 Variation of mid back rounded long vowel [o:] and low central long vowel [a:]

A most typical type of variation due to the regional differences among the urban (UK) and the rural (RK) speakers of the Kashmiri speech community has been found to be the variation of *mid back rounded long vowel* [o:] and *low central long vowel* [a:]. In their use of past participle and past perfect tense forms, a set of verbs in the speech of urban Kashmiri speakers (UK) have different phonological equivalents in the speech of their rural counterparts (RK). These variations have been observed when these speakers exclusively refer to or talk about the male individuals and famine objects. Some examples showing this type of variation are listed below:

TABLE 2.10
VARIATION OF [O:] AND [A:] AMONG THE URBAN AND RURAL KASHMIRI SPEAKERS

Urban Kashmiri Speakers (UK)	Rural Kashmiri Speakers (RK)	Gloss
/ ðra:mUt /	/ ðro:mUt /	‘had left/gone’
/ tsa:mUt /	/ tso:mUt /	‘had entered’
/ a:mUt /	/ o:mUt /	‘had come’
/ ra:mUt /	/ ro:mUt /	‘had lost’
/ ha:umUt /	/ ho:umUt /	‘had shown’
/ tra:umUt /	/ tro:umUt /	‘dropped/put/delivered’

3.1.4 Variation of mid central unrounded long vowel [ə:] and low central long vowel [a:]

Another similar variation among the speakers of the same speech community on the basis of regional differences pertaining to the same set of grammatical categories has been noticed in the use of *mid central unrounded long vowel* [ə:] in the speech of rural speakers (RK) with its alternative form i.e. the *low central long vowel* [a:] in the speech of their urban counterparts (UK). On the contrary these variations have been noticed to come into being when both the categories of the speakers refer to or talk only about the female subjects and famine objects. Some examples of this type of variation are given below:

TABLE 2.11
VARIATION OF [Ə:] AND [A:] AMONG THE URBAN (UK) AND RURAL KASHMIRI SPEAKERS (RK)

Urban Kashmiri Speakers (UK)	Rural Kashmiri Speakers (RK)	Gloss
/ ðra:mits /	/ ðə:mits /	‘ had gone’
/ tsa:mits /	/tsə:mits /	‘ had entered’
/ a:mits /	/ ə:mits /	‘ had come’
/ ra:mits /	/ rə:mits /	‘had lost’
/ ha:mits /	/ hə:mits /	‘shown’
/ tra:mits /	/ trə:mits /	‘dropped/put/delivered’

3.1.5 Variation of low central short vowel [a] and mid front unrounded short vowel [e]

It has been found that during the use of certain past tense verb forms, the speech of Urban Kashmiri speakers (UK), with the use of *low central short vowel* [a] is clearly differentiated from the speech of their rural counterparts (RK) with their use of *mid front unrounded short vowel* [e] in their speech. Following table shows the examples of this type of variation.

TABLE 2.12
 VARIATION OF [A] AND [E] AMONG THE URBAN AND RURAL KASHMIRI SPEAKERS

Urban Kashmiri Speakers (UK)	Rural Kashmiri Speakers (RK)	Gloss
/ ðopmas /	/ ðopmes /	'I told him/her'
/ ðopnas /	/ ðopnes /	'he/she told him/her'
/ ðyutnas /	/ ðyutnes /	'he/she gave it to him/her'
/ ðyutmas /	/ ðyutmes /	'I gave it to him/her'
/ hyotmas /	/ hyotmes /	'I bought it for him/her'
/ hyotnas /	/ hyotnes /	'I took it from him/her'
/ rotmas /	/ rotmes /	'he/she bought for him/her'
/ neumas /	/ nuemes /	'I had it from him/her'
/ neumas /	/ neumes /	'I took it from him/her'
/ neunas /	/ neunes /	'I gave it to him/her'
/ neunas /	/ neunes /	'he/she took it from him/her'
/ lyokhmas /	/ lyokhmes /	'he/she gave it to him/her'
/ lyokhnas /	/ lyokhnes /	'I wrote to him/her'
/ vUçhmas /	/ vUçhmes /	'he/she wrote to him/her'
/ vUçhnas /	/ vUçhnes /	'I saw it with him/her'
/ çhavan /	/ çhevan /	'he/she him/her'
		'drinking/drinks'

3.2 Consonants

Variation of voiced alveolar trill [r] and voiced unaspirated retroflex stop [d]

The frequent use of [r] in the speech of urban Kashmiri speakers (UK) in place of [d] in the speech of their rural counterparts (RK) has been considerably noticed. For example, the words *kokUr* 'cock' and *ku:r* 'daughter/girl' pronounced so by urban Kashmiri speakers (irrespective of their religious background i.e. both Hindu and Muslim Kashmir speakers), are pronounced by as *kokUd* 'cock' and *ku:d* 'daughter/girl' by their rural counterparts (only Muslim rural Kashmiri speakers). This variation of [r] and [d] in the speech of rural (RK) and urban speakers (UK) of the Kashmiri language has been noticed at the medial and final positions of a large number of words. The examples supporting this type of variation are tabulated below:

TABLE 2.13
 VARIATION OF [R] AND [D] AMONG THE URBAN AND RURAL KASHMIRI SPEAKERS

Urban Kashmiri Speakers (UK)	Rural Kashmir Speakers (RK)	Gloss
/ rabar /	/ rabad /	'rubber'
/ margUza:r /	/ madgUza:r /	'grave yard'
/ mari ð /	/ madi ð /	'man'
/ šUr /	/ šUd /	'child'
/ jagri /	/ jagdi /	'quarrel'
/ k āngir /	/ k āngid /	'fire pot'
/ zor /	/ zod /	'deaf'
/ zər /	/ zəd /	'deaf (fem.)'
/ çho:r /	/ çho:d /	'dumb'
/ çhə:r /	/ çhə:d /	'dumb (fem.)'
/ lar /	/ lad /	'lie in'
/ par ð /	/ pad ð /	'curtain'
/ biñiri /	/ biñidi /	'bangles'
/ kor /	/ kod /	'a big bangle'
/ trakUr /	/ trakUd /	'swift'
/ trakir /	/ trakid /	'tool for weighing'

C. Lexical Variation

The social heterogeneity of the Kashmiri speech community has also given rise to variation in the use of language among its speakers at its level of lexicon to a large extent. There is a considerable stock of lexical items found in the speech of a particular group of Kashmiri speakers which is either totally missing in the speech of another group of speakers, or that group has developed an alternative set of lexical items conveying the same meaning. In this study an attempt has been made to examine the lexical variation among the Kashmiri speakers in accordance with four social factors viz.-a-viz. religion, age, education and occupation/profession.

1 Lexical Variation due to the difference in Religion

It has been observed that there are a good number of lexical items found in the speech of Hindu Kashmiri speakers (HK) which are not found in the speech of Muslim Kashmiri speakers (MK), for which they have developed an alternative set of the lexical items conveying the same meaning (different forms with the same meaning). For example, the Kashmiri equivalents for 'water' and 'cooked meat' in the Hindu's speech (HK) are *ponY* and *neni* respectively, and the Kashmiri equivalents for these two words- 'water; and 'cooked meat' in the variety of speech spoken by Muslim Kashmiris (MK) are *a:b* and *na:fi* respectively. The other examples depicting this type of variation are tabulated as below:

TABLE 3.1
 LEXICAL VARIATION DUE TO THE DIFFERENCES IN RELIGION

Hindu Kashmiri Speakers (HK)	Muslim Kashmiri Speakers (MK)	Gloss
/ a: ša: /	/ Ume: ð /	'hope'
/ bohŋUn /	/ pətYli /	'cooking vessel'
/ sorig /	/ janaθ /	'heaven/paradise'
/ narUkh /	/ jahnam /	'hell'
/ zal /	/ pi ša: b /	'urine'
/ ɔg /	/ hisi /	'part'
/ šā:ti: /	/ amUn /	'peace'
/ məɔrer /	/ kh ād /	'sugar'
/ havan /	/ niya:z /	'donation'
/ mombətY /	/ šama /	'candle'
/ šari:r /	/ jisim /	'body'
/ mogalçai: /	/ kəhvi /	'coffee'
/ amrit /	/ a:bihaya:t /	'elixir'
/ ɔram /	/ ɔ:n /	'religion'
/ prabaθ /	/ sahar /	'dawn'
/ sapUn /	/ kha:b /	'dream'
/ braθa: /	/ kh āv āð /	'husband'
/ go: r /	/ Usta: ð /	'teacher'
/ ləgin /	/ nika:h /	'marriage ceremony/bond'
/ šUkirva:r /	/ jUma /	'Friday'
/ šara:n /	/ gosUl /	'bath'
/ šru:ts /	/ pa:kh /	'pious/pure'
/ pi: ʈy /	/ son ɔ:k /	'box'
/ pu:rer /	/ barkaθ /	'blessing'
/ siri /	/ a:ʈta:b /	'sun'
/ kru:d /	/ šararaθ /	'anger'
/ samkhUn /	/ tə:zyaθ /	'condolence visit'
/ mu:rti /	/ potUl /	'idol'
/ vəhrəvo:d /	/ zah ɔh /	'birth day'
/ pa:p /	/ gonah /	'sin'
/ kho:s /	/ pyali /	'cup'
/ iba:ðaθ /	/ pu:za: /	'worship'

2 Lexical variation due to the difference in Age

It is a linguistic fact that languages do change and vary with age. During the course of time many new words are added to lexicon of a language because of new inventions and discoveries. This phenomenon enriches the vocabulary build of that particular language. It is also true to say that at the same time; many words are deleted and eliminated from the existing lexicon of a particular language with the passage of time. Thus, words keep on coming and going with age. This principle is quite applicable to the Kashmiri lexicon to a considerable extent as well. The two groups of Kashmiri speakers viz., (A1) i.e. the speakers falling under the age of 15-50 years and (A2), those having age from 60 years and above have been seen to show notable and considerable variations in the use of their language at the level of lexicon. It has been observed that the speech (lexicon) of speakers belonging to age group A1 (15-50 years) is characterized by modern and technical terminologies. The enrichment of their speech and lexicon is a direct consequence of borrowing from other languages with which these speakers are in direct contact. Moreover, their exposure to the latest developments and the current affairs has also been an edge for the enrichment of their lexicon. On the contrary, their counterparts, i.e. speakers belonging to age group A2 (50 years and above) are less advantaged in terms of their exposure to the current affairs and the latest development, ad happenings. This has resulted in the development of a very limited range of lexical stock in their speech. The examples showing variation among the Kashmiri speakers with regard to age are tabulated below:

TABLE 3.2
LEXICAL VARIATIONS DUE TO THE DIFFERENCES IN AGE

A1(Kashmiri Speakers with age of 15-50 years)	A2 (Kashmiri Speakers with age of 50 years and above)	Gloss
/čhapinY /	/na:lə:nY /	'sleeper'
/bu: th /	/khorba:n /	'shoe'
/trouzar /	/yeza:r /	'trouser'
/jaha:zi /	/vətsipreng /	'airplane'
/mə:l /	/ragbaθ /	'appetite'
/kičan /	/da:ni kUṭ h /	'kitchen'
/pai ḍal /	/vokhlY /	'walking on foot'
/galti: /	/atUd /	'mistake'
/k ōnju:s /	/k ōd /	'miser'
/dasta:r /	/malməly /	'turban,
/ki:maθ /	/nerakh /	'price'
/be:g /	/ṭ he:li /	'bag'
/ḍor /	/pai ḍa:r /	'durable'
/piša:b /	/i ḍa:r /	'urine'
/moṭ h /	/čhrōg /	'handful'
/tsi:rY pahan /	/a ḍbə:gY /	'later on'
/kəmi:z /	/kurtanY /	'shirt'

3 Lexical Variation due the difference in Education.

It has been found that the literate (E1) and illiterate (E2) Kashmiri speakers show remarkable variations in their speech at the level of lexicon. Like the speakers of the age group A1 (15-50 years), the speech of literate (E1) group of Kashmiri speakers is mostly filled with modern, scientific, and technical terminologies as compared to their illiterate (E2) counterparts. They (E1) have been found to show a great tendency to be updated with the current affairs and the latest happenings related to the modern inventions. With the result, they borrow a considerable number of vocabulary items from other languages especially English. This process enables them to enrich their word build with modern and technical vocabulary items. Some examples showing this type of variation are listed as below:

TABLE 3.3
LEXICAL VARIATION DUE THE DIFFERENCE IN EDUCATION.

Literate Kashmir Speakers (E1)	Illiterate Kashmiri Speakers (E2)	Gloss
/kUrtanY /	/kəmi:z /	'shirt'
/kamri /	/kUṭ h /	'room'
/riṣṭiḍa:r /	/ə: ṣna:o /	'relative'
/pə:ja:mi /	/yeza:r /	'trouser'
/bistar /	/vaθirUn /	'bedding'
/kamzo:r /	/ṣUs /	'weak'
/hamṣe:ri /	/beni /	'sister'
/bara: ḍar /	/boi /	'brother'
/tUrUn /	/hUḍUr /	'cold'
/garə m /	/vUṣUn /	'hot'

D. Variation Due To the Use of Modern, Scientific, and Technical Terminologies

In order to enjoy a special status, and to be differentiated from the other speakers of the speech community, the speakers of the literate group (E1) and Age group A1 (15 – 50 years) tend to show great affinity to use the most prestigious and standardized variety of Kashmiri. For doing all this, these speakers borrow certain items of modern, scientific, and technical terminology/vocabulary from other languages, especially from English. This phenomenon enables them to enrich their lexical build and standardize the variety of their speech. The examples of the most commonly used borrowed (modern, scientific, and technical) terms found exclusively in the speech of the above mentioned groups of speakers are as following:

/inṭarneṭ / 'internet', / i:me:l / 'email', / kampuṭar / 'computer', / ṭe:b / 'tab', / ṭe:bleṭ / 'tablet', / aypə:d / 'iPad', / aypod / 'iPod', / le:pta:p / 'laptop', / selḥo:n / 'cell phone', / ḥo:n nambar / 'phone number', / miska:l / 'missed call', / mase:j / 'message', / esemes / 'SMS', / pe:par / 'newspaper', / kəla:s / 'class', / kəlasme:ṭ / 'classmate', / lekčar / 'lecture', / notəs / 'notes', / ekza:m / 'exam', / ekza:mnar / 'examiner', / markəs / 'marks', / bUkəs / 'books', / ṭ iUṣ an / 'tution', / ḥivar / 'fever', / kold / 'cold', / ja:b / 'job', / ba:s / 'boss', / biznes / 'business', / done:ṣan / 'donation', / pa:rṭi: / 'party', / mi:ṭiṅ / 'meeting', / ḥrend / 'friend', / ba:y ḥrend / 'boyfriend', / gərl ḥrend / 'girlfriend', / ḥrendṣip / 'friendship', / hasbe:nd / 'husband', / kičan / 'kitchen', / ba:θru:m / 'bathroom', / bedru:m / 'bedroom', / ṣə:ṭ / 'shirt', / penṭ / 'pants', / ṭ i:ṣə:ṭ / 'T-shirt', / ṭravzar / 'trouser', / kəmi:z / 'shirt', / ḥla:iṭ / 'flight', / injan / 'engine', / inji:nar / 'engineer', / avalsə:r / 'overseer', / sUprāndāṭ / 'superintendent', / bil / 'bill', etc.

E. Variation Due To the Use of Different Registers

Another way of looking at the lexical variation is to study various lexical items associated with the occupation or profession of different occupational or professional groups of a particular speech community. **Register** is therefore, a set of lexical items associated with the occupation or profession of a particular occupational or professional group used for

a specific purpose in a specific social environment. Among the Kashmiri speech community, the register used by one particular occupational or professional group is not only missing in the lexicon of other occupational or professional group, but has also been found mutually unintelligible among different groups of speakers. The examples showing variation due to the varying use of different registers are given below:

1 Register of farming

/zira:θ / 'crop/production', /khal / 'barn', /toh / 'bran', /kom / 'bran', /yan / 'irrigation furrow', /ga:n / 'cattle shed', /bUs / 'chaff', /ðāðihavad / 'a pair of bulls', /ðāðivo:l / 'a person who ploughs', /ðāðva:yinY / 'ploughing', /yipəʃ / 'beam used with a plough' /me:nkh / 'peg', /fəðira:vUn / 'harrowing', /θalkarinY / 'transplantation', /lonUn / 'harvesting', /fəsil / 'crop/production', /fə:ʃh / 'furrow' /tsu:d / 'digging of soil', /və:r / 'kitchen garden' /nə:d / a big piece of agricultural land', /da:ni / 'rice/paddy', /dā:beyo:l / 'paddy seeds', /dā:bu:hUrY / 'a sack of rice', /dā:kUʃh / 'granary', /harUð / 'harvest season' /sagdiyUn / 'to irrigate', /pah / 'manure' gUh / 'manure' /greʃi / 'flour mill', /θəjva:n / 'seed bed', /narsari: / 'nursery', /khəjyʃal / 'oil cakes', /payvāð / 'grafting', /gi:nty / 'sheaf', /bi:lyçi / 'shovel', /ðro:t / 'stickle', /livan' spade', /vavUn / 'sowing' /čhōmbUn / 'thrashing', nenði / 'wedding' /va:ʃ / 'a particular time and season for sowing a particular crop' etc.

2 Register of medical profession

/dakhtar / 'doctor', /nəras / 'nurse', /bed / 'bed', /apre:šan / 'operation', /injākšan / 'injection' /kapšol / 'capsule' /si:rap / 'syrup', /maləriya / 'malaria', /tyfəyid / 'typhoid', /alsar / 'ulcer', /bade:j / 'bondage', /palastar / 'plaster', /payip / 'pipe', /wa:d / 'ward', /drasiŋ / 'apron', /sərgan / 'surgeon', /āmbUlanəs / 'ambulance', /haspata:l / 'hospital', /apre:šanθe:tar / 'operation theatre' /fivar / 'fever', /ʃe:blit / 'tablet' /kansar / 'cancer', /pe:šāʃ / 'patient', /admit / 'admit', /disča:rij / 'discharge', /pe:n / 'pain', /gUlikots / 'glucose', /inʃekšan / 'infection', etc.

3 Register of law

/šahdat / 'witness', /vəki:l / 'lawyer', /rUšvat / 'bribe', /gava: / 'witness', /aða:laθ / 'court', /arzinəvi:s / 'petition writer', /adavaθ / 'enmity' /girvi / 'mortgage', /bahats / 'discussion', /jarah / 'counter argument' /jUrma:ni / 'penalty', /zama:naθ / 'bail', /tə:ri:kh / 'date', /tə:mi:l / 'service of warrant', /tasʃi: / 'compromise', /tasdi:kh / 'attestation', /daʃa / 'section', /dava: / 'claim', /dasta:ve: / 'document', /pi: ši: / 'hearing', /fə:sli / 'judgment', /mUda:i: / 'appellant' /bəri: / 'acquitted', /baya:n / 'statement', /insa:ʃ / 'justice', /milzim / 'accused' /mijrim / 'criminal', /jUrUm / 'crime', /giriʃtə:tri: / 'arrest/conviction' /misal / 'file', /yišʃiya:m / 'court stamp', /yišʃiya:m fəro:š / 'stamp seller' /hakh / 'right', /milkiyaθ / 'property' /pritshigə:r / 'enquiry', /halʃibaya:n / 'affidavit' /sura:g / 'clue', /saza: / 'punishment' /je:l / 'prison', /mUnsiʃ / 'judge', /ko:nu:n / 'law', /karvə:yi: / 'action', /khəla:ʃ varzi: / 'violation', etc.

4 Register of boatmen and Fishermen

/khu:r / 'oar', /za:l / 'net used for catching the fishes', /sag / 'rope used for holding the net while catching fishes', /θambiged / 'upper part of the rope of the net', /ðoši / 'the upper part of the net', /parikar / 'pockets of the net', /sakhran / 'needle like tool used for weaving/knitting the net', /na:o / 'boat', /šikə:ry / 'small boat', /gadivə:r / 'small boat', /nam / 'front part of the boat', /dāb / 'middle portion of the boat' /koθ / 'plug used to stop the entry of water inside the boat', /khot / 'a box like structure in the boat for keeping fishes', /ba:l / 'river bank', /latidar / 'part of the boat where the boatman sits', /ʃUpir / 'basket like structure used keep fishes for sale', etc.

5 Register of Business and trade

/bapə:rY / 'businessman', /ba:p:r / 'business' /gra:kh / 'customer', /ba:v / 'price / rate', /soða: / 'deal', /sai: / 'advance', /ba:rða:n / 'empty boxes / cases', /ðōkhi / 'cheating', /ðōkhiba:z / 'cheater', /ja:l̩sa:z / 'cheater', /ðya:naθð:r / 'honest', /ðadiðad / 'bargaining', /naʃa / 'profit', /nokhsa:n / 'loss', /ma:l / 'goods/products/fruits' /fəsil / 'crop / fruit', /kariz / 'debt' /nakið / 'cash' /vozUm / 'borrow / lend', /ma:rkeʃ / 'market' /māg / 'demand', /tija:raθ / 'trade' /tə:jir / 'trader/businessman', /mə:likh / 'owner', /dUlə:Y / 'labor/charges' /ðrojar / 'inflation' /srojar / 'cheapness' /kādi / 'scale' /la:gaθ / 'charges', /taški:š / 'estimate', /mōdi: / 'market', /lo:n / 'loan', etc.

IV. DISCUSSIONS AND CONCLUSIONS

Findings

Since language and society are closely related to each other, language variation takes place because of social variation. Kashmiri speakers belonging to different social groups have been observed to vary in the use of their language at the level of phonology and lexicon in accordance with certain social variables viz-a-viz, religion, education, region/ socioeconomic status, age and occupation/profession.

The sociolinguistic variables recorded on the basis of religion have divided the entire speech community into two groups of speakers viz. Hindu Kashmiri speakers and Muslim Kashmiri speakers. The Hindu Kashmiri speakers (HK) have been seen to vary considerably in the use of their language at the level of phonology and lexicon from their Muslim counterparts (MK). One of the reasons behind this variation is that the form of their speech (HK) has been found to be mostly filled with and influenced by Sanskrit sources and the form of the speech of the Muslim Kashmiri speakers (MK) has been observed to be enriched and influenced by Perso-Arabic borrowings. Moreover, the Hindu Kashmiri speakers irrespective education, region (urban/rural) and age, have been found to show a greater affinity towards the standard variety of Kashmiri.

On the basis of education, we had literate (E1) and illiterate (E2) groups of speakers. While studying the variation in the use of their language, it has been found that the speakers of literate (E1) group of Kashmiri like the Hindu speakers (irrespective of the place of their living, age and education) tend to use the standard variety of the language in comparison with their illiterate (E2) counterparts. They have also been seen to undergo borrowings of a considerable number of modern, scientific and technical terms from other languages especially English, in order to enrich the variety of their speech and look different from their illiterate (E2) counterparts.

Variations recorded on the basis of age revealed that the two groups of speakers viz., A1 (15-50 years) and A2 (50 years and above) do not use the same pattern of language. Like the Hindu Kashmiri speakers (HK) and the speakers of the literate group (E1), the speakers belonging to age group (A1) i.e. 15 – 50 years, irrespective of their place of living/region and the socioeconomic status have been found to show their inclination towards enriching their speech with modern terminologies.

On the basis of urban and rural character of the speech, significant variations have been noted among the speakers of the Kashmiri speech community. The speakers hailing from the valley of Srinagar and its vicinity are of course urban in origin and use the urban variety of Kashmiri which in turn is the standard variety. This variety is different from the rural variety of Kashmiri used by the rural speakers (settled in other parts of the valley other than the city of Srinagar).

Different occupational groups of the Kashmiri speech community include: farmers, office goers (professors, school teachers, doctors, lawyers etc.), boatmen/ fishermen and businessmen/traders. Variations in the use of their language have been recorded and presented in terms of use of various registers related to the profession and occupation of each professional and occupational group. It has been observed that the lexical items used in the registers of these professional and occupational groups are not found in the everyday speech of the common people of the speech community. As a matter of fact, they do not use these lexical items unless they are practically involved in the situation of related and concerned matters with the members of different occupational /professional groups of the speech community.

Conclusion

Linguistic variation is central to the study of language use. Different speakers of the same language have been seen to express the same meanings using different forms. Language variation is in fact the mirror reflection of the social variation. It is the direct consequence of the social variation of a heterogeneous speech community. The state of Jammu and Kashmir is the home to various sects of people. It inhibits the people belonging to different social backgrounds. Technically speaking, there is the social stratification and social heterogeneity. This social heterogeneity of the Kashmiri speech community is very well reflected in the linguistic behavior of its speakers. The speakers belonging to different social groups of the Kashmiri speech community do not use the same pattern and same structure of the language. They are bound to vary in their linguistic usage as they differ socially. The structure of the Kashmiri language therefore, considerably varies at various social levels of the Kashmiri speech community. For this variation among the Kashmiri speakers, certain social factors such as religion, region (place of living /socioeconomic level), education, age and occupation/ profession are widely held responsible.

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L2 Reading Comprehension: Exclusively L2 Competence or Different Competences?

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Abstract—This paper is a literature review focusing on reading English as a second or foreign language (ESL/EFL). It reviews the recent empirical studies in ESL/EFL reading and by so doing it intends to lay a theoretical foundation for the development of valid tests on reading comprehension and set directions for further research on ESL/EFL reading tests. First, the paper reviews the major reading models including bottom-up, top-down, interactive and interactive-compensatory models. Next it discusses the meaning of comprehension in ESL/EFL. Finally based on the review, it raises questions for further study.

Index Terms—ESL reading, reading competence, review

I. INTRODUCTION

L1 reading and L2 reading each has different purposes. For L1 reading, one reads in search of specific information, in order to obtain knowledge from reading texts and for general comprehension (Grabe & Stoller, 2002). In contrast to L1 reading, L2 readers have some different purposes associated with the reasons of learning English as a second or foreign language. They may read with effort for meaning, or learn lexical and grammatical knowledge (Pulido, 2003). On the other hand, L1 and L2 reading is also closely related. When one reads in a L2 language, one will inevitably transfer from the first language some of the competences and skills (Yamashita, 2007). Because of the differences and similarities found between L1 and L2 reading and the blurred boundary between L1 and L2 competences, to measure L2 reading is a challengeable task. Reading tests may measure more than L2 reading competences. Spolsky (1989) pointed out that a valid language test depends on a clear definition of what it means to know a language. In terms of testing L2 reading, it is necessary to first understand what L2 reading is. To validate L2 reading tests, the first step is to explore the nature of L2 reading.

This paper reviews relevant articles concerning the nature of L2 reading and how L2 reading is related to cognition. By reviewing the relevant literature I try to lay a foundation as reference for more valid reading tests, especially L2 reading. I focus on the testing of reading because of the following reasons. With the economic globalization, English has become one of most important compulsory courses in the Chinese university curriculum. Due to its importance, college students spend half of their spare time on learning English (Tan, 2007). However, compared with their effort, the Chinese students' performance on English tests (mainly composed of reading comprehension questions) is not satisfactory. Less than half of the students passed the national college English exam (ibid). In the literature researchers argued about the validity of the English examinations and contended whether such English examinations measure more than English proficiency (Cheng, 2008; Wu, 2001).

To address the problems found in the present English tests in China, it is necessary to review literature regarding the theories about English language proficiency including reading proficiency. Only we understand what L2 reading proficiency is, can we develop tests that can truly measure it.

II. NATURE OF READING

A. Reading Process

L2 reading research spans the last century. It was one of the issues of concern for the earliest reading research (Bernhardt, 2001). But for most of the time the research was incorporated into that of L1 reading. Judd and Buswell pointed out that "foreign language can be read in a manner directly comparable to the reading of vernacular ... the manner of reading is fundamentally the same" (1922, p. 91). Even today in the literature there are still studies that support the view that L1 and L2 reading is fundamentally the same. For example, Sarig (1987) studied 8 Israeli female adolescents aged between 17 and 18. She found that no matter in reading both in their first language Hebrew and the foreign language English, the students implemented the similar higher-level processing skills such as identifying main ideas and synthesizing overall information.

Despite the shared properties between L1 and L2 reading, there still exist some 'visible differences that have an impact on understanding, on perception, on social and psychological access, on processing speed and on success' (Bernhardt, 2001, p. 2). It is these differences that will be focused on during the review.

1. Bottom-up Models

In the last 20 years or so the literature on the reading process has been dominated by cognitive psychology which attempted to apply the information processing perspective to many components of reading performance. In the early cognitive theory, information is processed on a stage-by-stage basis. Each stage transforms its input and “passes on the new recoded representation as an input to a subsequent stage”. Because the sequence of processing operation moves from the incoming data to a higher-level encoding, such reading pattern is called bottom-up models (Stanovich, 1980, p. 33).

Gough (1972) states that in the more technical terms the bottom-up model works in sequence in the following procedure. First, the graphemic information goes through the visual system and is transformed from letters to sound; next, the phonemic representation of letter combination is changed into a word. The meaning units or words then pass on to the third level, i.e., the place where sentences go when they are understood and meaning is incorporated into the knowledge system. Thus, through a series of successively upward movement of encodings, input is transformed from low-level sensory information to high-level meaning (Rayner & Pollatsek, 1989). This process is also referred to as “data-driven”.

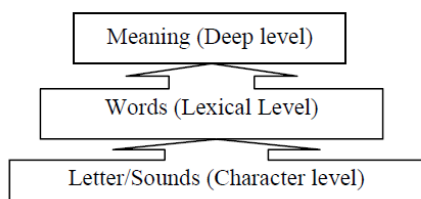


Fig.1 Bottom-up Model

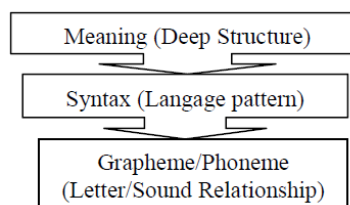


Fig. 2 Top-down Model

Although this data-driven model is mainly attacked for its major flaw that it doesn't explain clearly how higher-level process affects lower level, it is still useful as a criterion to distinguish a good ESL reader from a poor one. Pang (2008) reviewed recent research empirical articles about L1 and L2 reading and concluded that lower-level processing such as word recognition is an essential part of L2 reading comprehension and even for advanced ESL readers, lower-level processing is always needed for L2 reading comprehension. He also noted that for L2 reading high level reading process such as making inference is always dependent on readers' English proficiency, i.e. their lexical and syntactic knowledge of English.

In another research based on 2-year longitudinal study of ESL university freshmen who were enrolled in a university in New York, Parry (1991) found that when readers were at the stage of vocabulary development, they were unable to implement higher cognitive reading skills such as guess meaning in the context. Thus, for ESL readers with lower English proficiency, L2 reading comprehension heavily depends on the encoding of basic knowledge such as phonology, vocabulary and syntax.

2. Top-down Models

Top down theories suggest an opposite movement of bottom-up models and it argues that comprehension begins with the readers' contribution, i.e. from higher levels of processing, and readers only resort to lower levels selectively. A typical top-down theory is Goodman's oft-quoted view of reading as a “psycholinguistic guessing game” (1967, p. 126). From the perspective of top-down theories, reading is seen as a constant process of guessing. Readers process reading not by reading every word. Instead, they sample the text, predict what may come next, and then sample the text again to confirm their predictions (Grellet, 1981). The amount of reading that readers process depends on how well they can guess the meaning. Such theories also suggest that readers can use meaning and grammatical cues to identify unrecognised words and reading for meaning is the primary objective of reading rather than mastery of letters, letter/sound relationships, and words (Smith, 1994; Gove, 1983). For the reader, the most important aspect about reading is the amount and kind of information gained through reading.

In this model it is evident that the flow of information moves from the higher level and as a result the recognition of word meaning depends on textual meaning first. Thus the higher level processes embodied in past experience (semantics) and the reader's knowledge of the language pattern (syntax) interacts with and direct the flow of information (Stanovich, 1980, p. 35).

Like bottom-up model, top-down model is also challenged for its limitations, though the theory claims that it is a universal process (Goodman, 1998). Eskey points out that “they tend to emphasize such higher-level skills as the prediction of meaning of context clues or certain kinds of background knowledge at the expense of lexical and grammatical forms” (1998, p. 94). Above all, the perceptual and decoding dimensions still have a major role to play in fluent reading. In Eskey's words, good reading is a more language-structured affair than the guessing-game metaphor seems to imply (*ibid*). Urquhart and Weir also critically comments:

“It is virtually impossible to see how a reader can begin by dealing with the text as a whole, then proceed to smaller units of the text, then down to individual sentences, ending with single letters. In fact, the term ‘top-down’ is deceptive, appearing to offer a neat converse to ‘bottom-up’, a converse which in reality does not exist” (1998, p. 42).

For ESL or EFL reading, top-down model seems to be more applicable to those who are more proficient in the target language. Because they encounter little or even no phonemic, semantic or syntactic problems in the text, they can spare

their attentional resources more cognitively than perceptually for the rendezvous of meaning from the text and the background knowledge and prior knowledge from their long-term memory (Widdowson, 1983). Pulido (2007) suggested that readers' prior knowledge is activated by the quality of the text they are reading. This is especially true for ESL readers. If the content and difficulty of the text matches their prior knowledge, more proficient ESL readers may read equally well as L1 readers. Pulido investigated ninety-nine adult Spanish learners, who were taking elementary, intermediate and advanced levels of Spanish course respectively at university level. Pulido selected four script-based narrative passages and two of them were familiar to the participants and two were unfamiliar to measure their lexical gain and retention. He found that weaker readers had less lexical gain than stronger readers when they experienced more constraints in the text such as unfamiliar words. Pulido explained the constraints increased the participants' load on processing lexical items and therefore they allocated less attention to using strategies for constructing meaning. This demonstrates that ESL readers are not consistent in implementing top-down reading model. When the difficulty of a text is raised above the level of their proficiency or beyond prior knowledge, they have to allocate more attention to process lexical or syntactic items, a typical bottom-up model.

Lee (2009) did a similar study on sixty Korean English L2 readers, who were either undergraduates or graduates studying in American and Korean universities. The author addressed the question of how topic congruence and topic interest affect the quality of L2 readers' reading comprehension. Based on their score on standard tests, the participants were divided into upper-intermediate to advanced-level English users. Lee chose two argumentative articles addressing the same issue from either positive or negative perspective and he asked the participants to write down what they read. The first question, topic congruence, is concerned with the question whether or not the content corresponds with the participants' prior beliefs and the second question, topic interest, is concerned with whether the content appeals to them. He used "repeated measures multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) with topic congruence as a within-subjects factor and topic interest as a between-subjects factor" (2009, p. 168). Data analysis revealed that high topic interest group outperformed the low topic interest group and the author suggested that topic interest is an important factor that can help ESL readers retain better the textual information. The author also found that when reading a text congruent with the readers' prior belief, they might overlook the detailed information. On the other hand, the text with incongruent topic drew the readers' more attention to process information with low content value.

These two studies indicate that whether to use top-down model or not, the familiarity of a text is a decisive factor for ESL readers. This is especially applied to less proficient ESL readers, who seem to be deprived of their attention for the interpretation of linguistic meanings or they have to attend more to bottom-up process than native English readers (Eskey, 1998) because ESL readers are mostly not linguistically qualified for guessing.

Wildman and King (1980) argued that information in most of reading texts is in fact neither sufficiently redundant nor adequately predictive to make hypotheses, i.e., "top-down" model to operate effectively. Because various factors involved in L2 reading, L2 readers are found to read in a bimodal pattern or interactive pattern, i.e., from both bottom-up and top-down models.

3. Interactive Model

An interactive reading model, a model based on psycholinguistics, attempts to combine the valid insights of bottom-up and top-down models and recognizes the interaction of bottom-up and top-down processes simultaneously throughout the reading process. It is parallel rather than serial (Grabe, 1991) and it tries to "avoid the criticisms levelled against each of the model" (McCormick, 1988, p. 29) by providing "a more accurate conceptualisation of reading performance" (Carrell, 1998).

The blend of bottom-up and top-down models is what Rumelhart (1984) proposes, who thinks that reading is at once a perceptual and a cognitive process, which bridges and blurs these two traditional distinctions.

In his opinion, readers vary their focus along a continuum from primarily text-based processing to primarily reader-based processing and bottom-up and top-down processing interacts in a complex mechanism of triggering and anticipation (*ibid*). Based on this theory, the processing of text is a flexible interaction of all the different information sources that are available to the reader; and information contained in higher stages of processing can influence the analysis that occurs at lower stages of analysis, as well as the other way around. Readers can process a reading text by using one or more of the possible information sources as their primary clues to process meaning: semantic context, syntactic environment, or surrounding letters (*ibid*). But the initial trigger of high-order process seems to be the incoming textual data (bottom-up) which activates appropriate higher level schemata (top-down) against which the reader tries to give the text a coherent interpretation.

Leeser (2007)'s study on the interplay between topic familiarity and working memory in ESL reading comprehension offers further explanation on how ESL readers shift between top-down and bottom-up models. The author investigated 94 undergraduates learning Spanish at beginning level. One group of the participants read two reading passages with familiar topic and another group read two passages with unfamiliar topic. Afterwards, they completed a written recall protocol in their first language. Based on post hoc analysis, Leeser found that if the participants were familiar with the topic, they benefited from higher working memory but in doing unfamiliar task, the author also noted the participants' high working memory but it is used to compensate for unfamiliarity on the text. The author explained that readers integrate textual information with their prior knowledge but when the text is unfamiliar to readers, readers may not have relevant prior knowledge to draw and as a result, higher levels of WM might not facilitate comprehension. Leeser's

findings lend further support to Rumelhart (1984)'s theory that bottom-up and top-down processing interacts in a complex mechanism and information contained in higher stages of processing can influence the analysis that occurs at lower stages of analysis, as well as the other way around. Thus, high WM may either process bottom-up or top-down information depending on the familiarity of the text.

Leeser's findings seem to echo Dechant's explanation that the reader constructs meaning by the selective use of information from all sources of meaning (graphemic, phonemic, morphemic, syntax, semantics) without adherence to any one set order. The reader simultaneously uses all levels of processing even though one source of meaning can be primary at a given time" (1991, p. 27). Goodman also stated that readers provide input, too, and the reader, interacting with the text, is selective in using just as little of the cues from text as necessary to construct meaning". (1981, p. 477)

In short, "reading is regarded not as a reaction to a text but as interaction between the writer and the reader mediated through the text" (Widdowson, 1982, p. 174).

However, just I mentioned earlier, ESL or EFL readers are only qualified to read interactively under the condition that they are proficient enough in the target language. A wealth of empirical work demonstrates that readers can interpret and evaluate an author's message only to the extent that they possess and call forth the vocabulary, syntactic, rhetorical, topical, analytic, and social knowledge that the author has presumed, as well as a number of theories and models of the psychological structures and processes involved in bringing such knowledge to bear (Anderson & Pearson 1984).

In view of this linguistic and cultural threshold, interactive-compensatory appears to be more palatable to the research of ESL and EFL reading.

4. Interactive-Compensatory Model

The interactive-compensatory model provides truthful insights into the nature of reading, especially for EFL reading (Stanovich 1980). It is interactive because readers process the meaning of a text by decoding the linguistic information (bottom-up processing) and by relating this information to what they already know about the world (top-down processing). The background knowledge is accumulated through one's experience of the world and is stored in abstract knowledge structures known as "schemata" (Adams and Collins, 1979).

And it is compensatory in the sense that "a deficit in any knowledge source results in a heavier reliance on other knowledge sources" (Stanovich, 1980, p. 63) or readers compensate the deficiency of level by drawing either other higher or lower levels (Nunan, 1995). In other words, if a reader's linguistic knowledge is weak at any one point, s/he will compensate by drawing on background knowledge, and vice versa. The model assumes that top-down and bottom-up processes are equally important in processing a text. To my understanding, this model also provides the result from empirical studies that language competence is componential (Volmer, 1983).

Yau (2009) made a comparative study on Chinese students' use of strategies in reading both Chinese and English. She selected a total of 144 Grade 11 students for her study. She used correlational analysis and *t*-test to analyze quantitative data of English reading comprehension test and two reading strategies questionnaires and she also used the constant comparative method to analyze qualitative data of semi-structured interviews and think-aloud protocols. She found that the participants used quite different sub-categories of reading strategies, though the overall uses of L1 and L2 strategies were not significantly different. For example, she noted that the participants more frequently used metacognitive and cognitive strategies when they read in their first language and they used more support strategies when they read in English. Another interesting finding Yau revealed is that when the participants read the texts written in classic Chinese and in English they used similar strategies, though they used different strategies when they read texts written in classic Chinese and modern Chinese. Yau explained that when reading in classic Chinese (different from modern Chinese) and English, the students resorted to mental translation but such translation was not necessary when they read modern Chinese. This conclusion corresponds with Stanovich (1980)'s interactive-compensatory model in that the readers compensate for "a deficit in any knowledge source results in a heavier reliance on other knowledge sources".

In conclusion, I have reviewed four kinds of reading models supported with recent empirical studies. It can be seen that L2 readers read without exclusively resorting to one single model. Under certain conditions, readers may read from top-down or bottom-up (Rumelhart, 1984). L2 reading is multidimensional in that many factors are involved in the processing of textual information. My brief review blurs the boundaries among the different models and it may serve as a definition of the nature of L2 reading for L2 reading tests.

B. Comprehension

The core of reading comprehension is the search and struggle for meaning, hidden from the outside observers (Block, 1980). Generally speaking, comprehension is the understanding of what an author conveys in his/her text. This statement, however, is certainly subject to attack since there are many variables that will decide how we understand a text. From readers' perspective, the factors that influence comprehension include affect, background metalinguistic intuition, goal, and language aptitude (Swaffar, 1988). Readers naturally think that when they read they are attempting to reach for 100% or ideal comprehension. But the concept of ideal comprehension itself is confusing. Is it an exact photocopy of the writer's proposition to the readers' mind or what William (1986) states "an accurate image" of the writer's intention. If the answer is yes, some other questions arise: what are the standards of the complete reflection of

the writer's intention? and who are qualified to be the judges? Certainly test developers are not well qualified unless their mind is a cloning of the author's.

Urquhart suggests that comprehension is the different product of the reading process and the "the standards which comprehension depends on are more or less under the conscious command of the reader" (1987: 387). In the similar vein, Goodman sees reading comprehension as readers' restructuring of author's message (1967). Readers reconstruct what they read because of the role their schemata play during reading. Bruning et al (2004) explained that readers' understanding was created within the knowledge framework that was activated prior to reading and comprehension is readers' interaction between the reading passages and their schemata (Nassaji, 2007). Florencio (2004) investigated the reading comprehension of 51 Brazilian university students learning English and 66 American university students. The author asked the participants to read two passages, one with a familiar content and the other with unfamiliar content. After reading, he then asked them to complete multiple choice and cloze questions based on the passages. Based on the analysis of Variance (ANOVAS) with repeated measures that "determine the effects of the independent variables of passage content (familiar and unfamiliar) and groups (American and Brazilian) on the dependent variables, speed, comprehension question and cloze task" (p. 62), the author found that the participants scored much higher and read faster when they read the text of familiar content. The author concluded that reading comprehension goes beyond readers' linguistic competence and their background knowledge is a decisive component in their reading comprehension. Finally, the author suggested that L2 teachers should attribute students' reading comprehension problems not only to linguistic difficulties but also to cultural elements. This indicates that thorough understanding of a text depends on readers' contribution from their schema.

But unfortunately, in taking a test of reading, the readers' contribution is weakened by test constructors and readers, or test takers to be more exact, are disadvantaged in the sense that they cannot argue with test constructors for a different interpretation. But this under-privilege doesn't mean that comprehension in tests is equivalent to comprehension questions. How then can readers and test constructors find an interface on which both have some shared patterns? Figure 3 shows how the real reading comprehension works (Block, 1980).

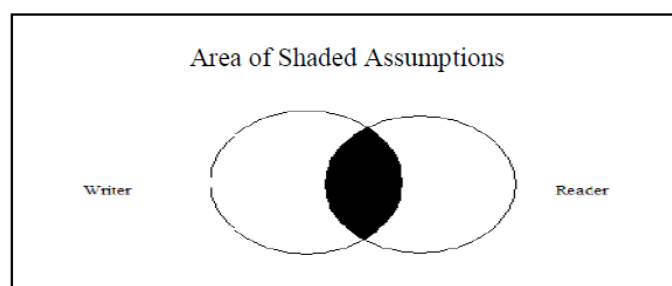


Fig. 3 The Communication between the writer and the reader

The shaded area where the two circles overlap represents what the reader and writer have in common. It is like a lunar eclipse but certainly it is not a total one. 100% comprehension, like a total eclipse, seldom happens. This is because the intangible things like attitudes, beliefs and values are different among readers (ibid), writers and test constructors and how readers comprehend will depend on their individual perspectives and background "because meaning and structure of a text are not inherent in the print but are invited by the author and imputed to the text by the reader" (Schallert, 1996, p. 272). Therefore, what we hope for the best is a larger eclipse or more shaded area. To guarantee this, writers and readers should be closely similar in background knowledge, training and attitude as well as sufficient decoding abilities (Paran, 1996). What's more, a longer time is also needed for deeper understanding. To keep a balance between the depth of understanding and the length of time, what Fry (1963) recommends may be a compromise: 70% to 80% comprehension at the right speed. A better comprehension might be possible but can only be achieved at a snail's pace.

But Fry's recommendable comprehension of 70% - 80% still blurs the question of understanding, as there exist different levels of understanding. Gray (1960) distinguishes understanding in three levels: reading 'the line', reading 'between the line' and reading 'beyond the line', which refer respectively to literal meaning, inferred meaning and readers' critical evaluation of the text. Because the second and third levels are subjective in nature, they will inevitably bring about a mismatch of some kind between the reader and the writer and the readers' objective agreement is only limited to explicit statement, or the first level (Swaffer, 1988).

At the conclusion of the review we should still be reminded that reading comprehension is relative and readers are said "to have understood the text when they are able to find a configuration of hypotheses which offers a coherent account for the various aspects of the text" (Rumelhart, 1984).

III. FURTHER RESEARCH AND IMPLICATION

The general review indicates that reading is a complex process that involves different elements such as L2 readers' English proficiency, prior knowledge, content familiarity and even their L1 reading competency. To justify the validity

of a reading test, test developers need to take the complex nature of reading into consideration. Based on the review, I argue that L2 reading tests should be studied in situated context (Anderson et al, 1996) and in multiple methods, i.e, situated and multi reading tests. By situated context, I mean test developers first need to consider various elements such as the purposes, test takers and the context of tests. If the reading content of a test corresponds to the readers' prior knowledge, the test may fail to measure students' lexical and syntactic competencies because readers can compensate their lack of linguistic competences with their prior knowledge. Multiple methods refer to the variation of testing methods. If we intend to measure English proficiency rather than anything else such as L1 reading competency or background knowledge, we should implement a variety of methods and select reading passages with different topics. An integrated picture will better reflect L2 readers' reading proficiency.

My review also sets directions for further research on the tests of reading, especially the validation study of some of the important and high stake tests administered in China such as college entrance exam and college exit exam. I suggest that further empirical research cover the following aspects of testing reading comprehension:

1. Reading content (topic familiarity and difficulty of texts)
2. Purpose of testing reading (Students' reading ability or lexical and syntactic abilities)
3. Students (background knowledge, years of learning English and purpose of taking tests)
4. Importance (high stake, standardized tests)
5. Scale (nationwide or tests for specific people)
6. Format (text presentation, picture aids and methods of questions)
7. Time (time constraints)

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Educational Value and Character in Pappaseng Bugis (Buginese Message)

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Abstract—The Buginese community in South Sulawesi is a society that lives in powerful custom systems. The custom was deeply held by its ancestor since ancient times until now. Pappaseng or message as one of the Buginese communities' cultural products is known by the philosophy of the Buginese community living. It is loaded with educational values, which can be adopted in designing an education-based character. This article presents the fundamental values as the Foundation in action. The values are already widespread in the systems of Buginese community living. It also shows that there are many local wisdom values, which are buried deep in the Buginese community culture packaged in the *panngadereng* or custom. The custom can be the spearhead in the influx of other cultures that dismissed the damage the morality of the Indonesian nation generally and the Buginese society, particularly.

Index Terms—Buginese message, educational, values, character, local

I. INTRODUCTION

This paper is based on some of the writings of either in the form of research results, the papers presented at national or international seminars. There are some articles about issues that developing currently regarding to educational character, and text books about *pappaseng*. In addition, this paper is also based on the contents of the papers that have been presented by the author at the International Congress II of Regional languages of South Sulawesi, Makassar-Indonesia on 1-4 March 2011 at the Hotel *Sahid* Makassar entitled "Value and character education in *Pappaseng*: Representation of community norms and Philosophical Life of *Buginese*." There are some researches related to the meanings contained in the *pappaseng*. The researches were conducted by *Mattulada* (1995) which had been published in book form in (1995), D.M. (1997) Said, the *MoE* (2000; 2010), *Rosmawati* (2003). Specifically, this paper aims to introduce the wisdom of *Buginese* scholars in the past through the largest document after the writing of the literary works of *Galigo*. *Pappaseng* found in a classic script called *Lontaraq* of *Bugis* written since several centuries ago. The effort to preserve the contents of the *pappaseng* has been performed by rewriting the *pappaseng* script, either in the form of transcriptions of *Lontaraq* letters into the Latin alphabet, as well as in various other research results as has been done by *Matthes* (1872; 1937), *Haddade* (1986), *Mattalitti*, et al. (1986), *Ambo Enre*, et al. (1985), *Punagi* (1989) and some other text book.

This paper aims at revealing the sublime values contained in *pappaseng* which are still considered relevant to people's lives up to this point so that it can be one alternative educational values and character. Educational values and character basically have been running for a long time along with education in General. The educations are packaged in a variety of forms, such as: education of moral, education of ethics, and education of character. Nevertheless, the urgency of the education of values and character is not detached from the community sociocultural conditions.

Condition of Indonesian community currently shows that there has been a pretty horrible in tossing them into civilization of nation. Fundamental values such as the recognition of rights of people life are no longer the foundation for the action made by various groups of people in different areas. Compassion has been replaced by hatred being waged by various ethnic groups, religions, political party members, even by a community that historically has a soul and high mutual solidarity, i.e. community areas that are already being eroded. Awareness of self-esteem and empathy were destroyed by the explosion of uncontrolled emotion. The phenomenon such as this can be seen everywhere.

A very regrettable condition is compounded by the decline of morality, customs, norms violated, and the value of honesty seems to have been buried by lies and deception.

It is undeniable that social and cultural situation for society of South Sulawesi generally and *Buginese* society particularly was increasingly alarming, as expressed by some educational observers. Koesoema A (2010) expressed that there are a variety of educational events in the increasingly degrading human dignity and degree. The destruction of moral values, a new outbreak of injustice, depletion of solidarity, and others have taken place in our educational institutions. This invites a question that the extent to which the institution has been able to answer and perceptive about the various problems that occur in the community. Thus, it is necessary for a more approach and effective strategy.

One of the best solutions according to the view of the author is a community of *Buginese* should keep up to its cultural values. One of the cultural products loaded with value is *pappaseng*. Therefore, this paper specifically aims to reveal: (1) the value of education contained in the *pappaseng* (2) the importance of educational values in *pappaseng*, (3) the process of *pappaseng* to be alternative educational values and character.

II. METHODS

A. Data Sources

The Data in this paper were written in the form of the citation text data of the *pappaseng* deriving from the results from the *Lontaraq* letter transcription into the Latin alphabet that had been conducted by Ambo Enre, et al (1985), Mattalitti, et al (1986), Haddade (1986), Mahmud (1986), Punagi (1983), and other supporting reference.

B. Data Collection Techniques

Data were collected by studying the document by setting the text purposively toward some of the transcriptions in the *pappaseng* that had been conducted by researchers and other references by reading the text, doing the encoding on a corpus of data collected.

C. Data Analysis Techniques

Data were analyzed by three stages, namely: identifying data of *pappaseng* based on values containing the educational characters, classifying data based on the coding conducted before, interpreting and making conclusion.

III. RESULT AND DISCUSSION

A. Educational Values and Character in *Pappaseng*

The words of value and character are often mentioned and known by many people. Nevertheless, there are still too many people who ignore it. Characters need to be built, created, nurtured and developed. Character is influenced by environmental conditions such as family, community, as well as life of country and State. In order to achieve it, the values need to be established. The value for this is often interpreted as everything that can satisfy the needs and desires of human. The value can also be a quality self of something that may produce an award response so that it can be felt by every human being without through sensory experience first.

Lexically, the value is interpreted as (1) price (price estimate), (2) price of money, (3) figures for cleverness, (4) level, (5) important things that are useful to humanity (Alwi, et All., 2004, p. 690). In this paper, the value is defined as all things or things that are important and useful for human life.

From some definition above, it can be concluded that the values cannot be separated from human life. Value has always been a standard which directs every action or human performance.

There are many different types of value paraphrased from various posts, namely: (1) moral/ethical values; (2) religious values; (3) cultural values; (4) the value of education; and (5) philosophical value.

Furthermore, in this paper, the author provides a discussion on cultural values contained in *pappaseng* which is considered that the values can give a large donation in educational values and character.

Pappaseng comes from the word "*paseng*". It means a message (Said, 1977, p. 151). It includes advice, tips, and a will to be known and implemented.

Pappaseng holds values, suggestions and guidance from predecessors or ancestor of the *Buginese* in the past for his granddaughter to live life well (Mattalitti, 1986, p. 6). Thus, the *pappaseng* needs to be preserved as a manifestation of the *Buginese* people compliance to the ancestors.

Sikki, et all.(1998) explained that *pappaseng* in *Buginese* language has the same meaning with testament in Indonesian language. It has the synonym of pangaja' advice, but both these words have different nuance of meaning.

Another explanation that *pappaseng* is the testament of the parents to the child, his grandson, or people that should always be remembered as a mandate that needs to be followed and implemented based on believing in yourself with a sense of responsibility (Punagi, 1983).

From some of the *pappaseng* concept summarized from various writings, it can be concluded that *pappaseng* contains tips, which should always be remembered as a mandate from its ancestors that need to be performed with a full sense of responsibility. Thus, it is no wonder that *pappaseng* is a philosophy of life as part of a community of Bugis in South Sulawesi. From the writings, it is also explained that *pappaseng* contains a big idea, a noble mind fruit, precious soul, and a sublime attention on the nature of the positive and negative.

Pappaseng is like any wisdom or policies. It always displaces value throughout history that took place. However, the value will remain unchanged through the ages, consistent and in accordance with the philosophy of the State as a national shared asset value together.

Some examples of *pappaseng* and major substances contained in it and served as a living community of Bugisnese order since long ago, are expressed as follows:

1. The Values of *Alempureng* (Honesty)

Honesty is one of the fundamental values of human life. This value becomes the main basis in the social fellow human beings interact. It is one of the factors coloring the behavior and actions of human beings. *Pappaseng to riolo* 'ancestral advice' is expressed as follows:

Makkedai To rioloé: "Nakko engka muélorenng napogauq taué, rapanngi lopi. Ma doqpo tonangiwi mupatonangiannngi taué. Iyanaro riaseng malempuq makuwaé."

Meaning:

'Old people or ancestors said: "If there is something you want done by someone else, think of it as a boat. If you own ready to appropriate it, then you have other people to utilize it. So that it is called honesty. (Ambo Enre, at. All., 1985, p.10).

The *Pappaseng* explains how honesty should be conducted by everyone. In the *pappaseng*, there is an implied meaning that anyone who wants others to comply in carrying out what it wants, first he/she is positioning himself as the one who asked for it compliance.

There are also *pappaseng* which present advice to always be honest, who quoted from a conversation between *Laliddong* and *Kajao Arumpone* as follows:

*Ajaq muala waramparang narekko tania waramparammu,
Ajaq muala aju ripasanr énar éko tania iko pasanr á,
Ajaq muala aju riwetta wali narekko tania iko mpettai.*

Meaning:

'Do not take things that are not yours, Don't take the kept wood if you don't save it, Do not take a cut out of the wood if it was not you who cut the wood.' (Haddade, 1986, p.15).

The *Pappaseng* reveals the habits of the person resting or cut off both ends of the wood taken in the forest as a sign that the wood was already owned by someone. In the *pappaseng*, there is a message for not to take something that does not belong to us.

There are three basic concepts to achieve honesty, which is contained in *pappaseng*. They are *siri'* (shame); precautions or careful approach, and fear that accompanied the thoroughness. They are reflected in the following *pappaseng*:

*Naiya appongenna lempuq étellunrupai:
Seuwana, iyapa nqapoadaí kadopi molai;
Maduwanna, iyapa napogauk-i kadopi lewuriwi ri munripi tau-é
Matellunna, tennaenrekie waramparang ri palolok, tennassakkarenngi ada-ada maddiolona*

Meaning:

'There are three things that became the base of honesty; First, say when willing to perform Second, carry out when it is able to assume the risk Third, do not accept bribe goods, and does not contradict the words ever spoken.' (Ambo Enre, at. all. 1985, p. 10).

The message conveyed in the *Pappaseng* implies that an honest does not easily decide something, but he will observe first before conducting. An honestly person is not accepting goods bribery, and does not violate the word ever uttered.

Furthermore, the idea of honesty is also expressed in the *Pappaenna To Macca éri Luwu* as follows:

*Aruwai sabbinna lempu- é iyanaritu:
Napariwawoi ri wawo-é
Napariyawai ri yawa-é
Napariatauwi atawu-é
Naparilaenngi ri lalenng-é
Napari abeoi abeo-é
Naparisalawenngi ri salawenng-é
Naparimunriwi ri munri-é
Napariyoloi ri yolo-é*

Meaning:

There are eight characteristics of honesty:

- Placing on top, something decent on top
- Placing on bottom, something decent on bottom
- Placing on right, something decent on right
- Placing on left, something decent on left
- Placing inside, something decent inside
- Placing outside, something decent outside

Placing behind, something decent behind
 Placing in front, something decent in front
 Ambo Enre, (1985, p.26)

The *Pappaseng* conveys the message that honesty is the judge something objectively. Honesty also means putting something according to his position, and resolving problems fairly and wisely. The *Pappaseng* is required in particularly in enforcing justice.

2. *R éso* (Value of hard work)

In relation to the work ethic, historically known as the Bugis sailors accomplished. Because familiar with the water and the sea, the dynamic properties of waves that are always moving and do not want to calm the soul and that is what affects the mind (Said, 1997). It is described as a dynamic nature, full of zeal without relentless and unflinching *pappaseng* which can be seen in the following:

Pura babbara sompekku
Pura gucciri gulingku
Ulebbirenngi tellenng énatowali é

Meaning:

'My screen has grown, My steering wheel is mounted, Rather than re-sunk Chosen' Amir, et.all., (1982, p. 56)

The great nature, never retreats, and never gives up if people want to achieve something that is described in the *pappaseng*. However, high trait was controlled also in the *pappaseng* below:

'Nar éko moloiko roppo-roppo,
Rewekko mappikkirik
 (Amir, et.all., 1982, p. 56)

Meaning:

'If you go and see the bush, Let's thinking.

The *pappaseng* conveys that any of the desire to achieve something, if you encounter any obstacles or barriers back thinking about it. There is also *pappaseng* found in *éompugi* form that has been very popular among the *Bugis*, as follows:

R éropa temmanginngi
Namalomo nal é á
Pammas é d évata

Meaning:

'Only the diligent work, Often become catwalks, Ilahi grace'

The *pappaseng* conveys the message that perseverance and hard work continue to be the beginning of success. Therefore, if you want to succeed must be coupled with an attitude of despair abstinence, patience, and work selflessly and sincerity.

3. *Assitulung-Tulungeng, Assiwolompolongeng* (Value of Mutual Cooperation)

There is an interesting statement from the Dutch that the Bugis-Makassar should not be because of undisciplined soldiers. All of them want to be a commander. And these properties are visible when sailing not to be outdone and should always be Ponggawa (Amir, et. all., 1982).

However, behind the strong character, there is also a positive attitude that the people of South Sulawesi, although the traditional but the most powerful and have solidarity and mutual cooperation properties. It is revealed in the following *pappaseng*:

Rebba sipatokkong
maliq siparapp é
malilu sipakaingeq

Meaning:

'Sit back, mutually enforcing, Washed, each strand, Commemorating for mistake each other.' (Mattalitti, 1986, p.13).

The *Pappaseng* conveys the significance of mutual support. It reminds one another if anyone made a mistake, and the *pappaseng* refers that since ancient *Bugisnese* people do not like the philosophy of holding each other down, but the opposite is the belief that needs to be invested in helping each other in distress.

3. *Agettengeng* (Value of Firmness)

In the language of the *Bugis*, firmness can be called *getteng*, which can also be interpreted assertive, tough, and steadfast belief and consistent. In relation to this constancy, *pappaseng Arung Bila*, cited below:

"Tellu riala toddok:

Getteng,
Lempuq,
Ada tongeng

Meaning:

'There are three things that can be used as a benchmark, is:

Tenacity,
 Honesty,

True Speech'

(Mahmud, 1986, p. 23)

4. Value of *awaraningeng* 'Courage'

The values associated with courage depicted in *pappaseng Arung Bila* as follows:

"*Akguruiwi gaukna to warani-é enrenng-é ampéna, apak iya gaukna to warani-é seppuloi wawangenna seuwana jana.*

Jajini asera decenna. Iyanaro nariyaseng maja seddi-é nasabak matei. Na étopellorenng-émat é muto.

Naiya decenna to warani é

Seuwani, tettakkini napolei ada maja

Maduwawanna, tennajampangiwi kareba-é

Matellunna, temmatau-i ripalao ri yolo

Maeppana, temmatau-i ri paonro ri munri

Malimanna, temmatau-i mita bali

Maennenna, ri asirik-i

Mapitunna, riala-i passappo ri wanuwa-é

Maruwana, Matinuluk-i pajaji passurong

Maserana, rialai pakdekbak tomawatang"

Masirik toi, riasirik toi ri padanna tau

(*Mattaliti*, 1986, p. 19)

Meaning:

'Study the nature of the brave

Intrepid nature because there are ten kinds

Only one facing death ugliness as easy

Nevertheless, timid will not escape death, cause of death inevitable for animate beings.

Goodness brave, there are nine:

Not surprised to hear bad news or good news,

News that was heard not ignored but accompanied with energy

Not afraid to put forward, not afraid neglected in favor

Not afraid to see the enemy

Shield Made by the State

Diligent obligations

Being a defender of the people who apply arbitrary

Respect and also respected by his fellow human beings

In the above *pappaseng*, the message conveyed that everyone learns to be brave. He also said that the properties of the brave have nine kindnesses, and only the ugliness, because it is easy to face death. However, the timid will never be able to avoid death or death. Therefore, it is better than not die because the fight against but dead too. That is one of *Bugis* philosophy sourced from *pappaseng*. The expected value of such courage as a leader is to run the authorities.

5. Sipakatau (Value of Mutual respect)

Sipakatau in *pappaseng* contains in the following:

... Seuwatopi adeqna makkasuwiannng é ri arung mangkauq. Nakko kuiq ri olona arung mangkau é ajaq nalainng é taita. Arunngemusa tamata-mata, muitai paturung é dona enrenng é adanna. Ajaq muassail é uleng nakko na éwao ada arunng é Ajaqto muamiccu ri olomu. Ajaqto muattulekkeng. Ajaq muakkita uleng. Apa q nakko siduppa matao liseq bola é musicab éruseng, ripettu tigeroqko, muko sisseng rigangkamuna. Padatoi nakko si éwao ada liseq bola é itai bat éna mappau, batt éna molowi paturung é dona arunng é naiato muppapadai...(Ambo Enre, at. all. 1985, p. 19).

Meaning:

'One more customary to serve the reigning king, if we are in the presence of the king does not see the others. The king alone is deemed that you see what his wishes. Do not turn left and right if the king talks to you. Do not spit in front of him. Do not also recline. Do not look here and there because if you meet with chapel of view, then you smiled at each other, you will be killed even if you did know each other. As well as, if you are conversing with ancillary, will look at how to carry on serving the king, and that's what you aspire to be.'

Pappaseng explains the rules of thumb in doing service to the king, especially if a man of dealing directly with the king. Speakers wanted to teach the public discourse about how to interact with people of higher social status; the person must *ripakalebhiq* 'glorified,' people must be upheld and respected as a form of nature *sipakatau* 'mutual respect.' Environment kingdom laden with rules and manners so that the necessary acquaintance and habituation. The rules of thumb that is felt by the makers as critical discourse disseminated to the public for everyone to know and understand. With that understanding *arung mangkauq* as royal leader easily conquer the hearts of his people. From the *pappasemng*, learned the nature of the information about the importance of mutual respect and respecting each other, either as a subordinate-supervisor and vice versa, parent-child, or vice versa, and among humans.

Sixth is the value that has been described is a fundamental human value that can be a solid foundation in the formation of national character. These values have been taught by *Bugis* scholar in the past and have been entrenched in

the life of *Bugis* society since time immemorial. However, this time has been eroded even if virtually been ravaged buffeted by the changing times and the rapid globalization incredible powerful.

B. Why Educational Value Is Important in Pappaseng?

Concerns about the state of education and the value of the character has been revealed by education experts in Indonesia, including; Soedarsono (2008), Rahman (2013), and a wide range of expert opinion that the current level of education has lost its way (Sutaryo, 2012).

Basically, the interest that educational efforts are not able to maintain the essence of man as nature, creature's sacred creation of God, the Glorified, only now it is not the case, but has surfaced since many centuries ago. As noted by the German philosopher Immanuel Kant very prominent (1724-1808) that human beings will not be able to recognize him, but the man will be able to identify him based on what looks from the outside of him either empirically or in spirit (Rahman, 2013).

Concerns also have been raised by the leaders of the world long ago, as has been stated by Mahatma Gandhi who warned that one mortal sin, namely "education without character" 'education without character.' Similarly, Martin Luther King who once said: "Intelligence plus character that is the goal of true education" 'Intelligence plus character it is the ultimate goal of real education.' Similarly, Theodore Roosevelt once said: "To educate a person in mind and not in Morals is to educate a menace to society" Educating someone in the intelligence aspect and not the moral aspect is the danger to the public. (Ani Putra, 2013, p. 1).

The attentions of the various parties indicate that educational conditions serious, and should be taken seriously, and one of the best alternatives according to the author, is "Revert to Its Cultural Society." Within the meaning of the concept of culture includes ways of thinking, perspectives, and beliefs that can create the foundation of a value establishment attitude, behavior, and community action.

In Bugis of South Sulawesi, pappaseng has long been a philosophy of life, but is now also experiencing a shift in value or may otherwise public life has grown so rapidly in the current global era that affects thought patterns, beliefs, attitudes, behavior and actions of society. What happens in the middle of Bugis society today is a symptom of a shift in the value of life. Faisal (2010) expressed that the complexity values faced by society today is completely degraded, hedonic behavior, instant, materialistic, and individualistic.

Given this reality, efforts to change the mind-set and lifestyle of people are very difficult. Global flows the stronger and continue to urge the government and is now busy looking for alternative solutions and effective educational strategies to realize a character-based education. What to do in such circumstances, the authors argue that the best solution is to restore the livelihood of people in the values of local wisdom that has been rooted and entrenched in society. The *Bugis* in South Sulawesi, in particular, is supposed to return the mirror to the back of Bugis society has a history that *panngadereng* 'mores' are packed in the *pappaseng* 'counsel; advice' ingenious-clever people in the past can be an alternative to character education that is very telling, "Why doubt?" very prominent German philosopher Immanuel Kant (1724-1808) said that humans would be able to recognize him by what looks from the outside of him either empirically or in spirit (Rahman, 2013). This view can also be the rationale that if the man is a failure in recognizing his flesh, then he should be stimulated to recognize himself inwardly, and one effective way to do is bringing them closer to their cultural roots, which had been fused with the inner since they were born.

Why a view to re-strengthen the values for the *Bugis pappaseng* this important? The author had a strong belief that without concern for the values of local wisdom and allow the system *panngadereng* 'custom' ravaged buffeted by currents of modernization with global lifestyle is very strong, the character of this nation will be crushed to pieces. Moralities become something that is not important anymore, violence, berating each other and destroy each other it does not matter anymore. In short, law violations occur everywhere no matter. All of it is a phenomenon of life in the era of modernization and globalization. This study is based on the view of Jean Jacques Rousseau (1712-1778) French philosopher Social Contract with the view that calls for togetherness value is used as a social contract regardless of whether the social status of the nobility or of the bourgeois class. If the law is not functioning optimally, then the social contract that is functioning to provide social sanction for the offender. Based on that consideration, pappaseng values are expected to continue to exist and be a social contract that can control any attitude, behavior, and community actions that deviate from the norms and values.

C. Pappaseng as an Alternative to Educational Values and Character

The first major movement in the education value with the value realization term introduced by Sidney Simon in 1980 (Zuchdi, 2009). The next movement is called value realization approach. This approach includes all strategies to help someone determine, implement, realize, act and reach the values they believe in life including the approach realization value. This was further developed as a life skills education that teaches the knowledge and skills that can help the younger generation steer themselves in the life of a versatile compound. Have been many curriculum and methods of education which has been developed to help young people develop skills to realize values, be those effective in all situations, and define the meaning of life. The main thing is to know yourself-education, awareness of self-worth, skills to formulate goals, thinking, decision making skills, social skills, communication skills, academic knowledge and transcendental knowledge. How values education for South Sulawesi citizen? Have there are the most effective approaches to values education? The solution is in the hands of people who are competent to instruct.

The best alternative in improving the quality of educational value needs to be supported. How is the value of education, which is required to enhance the quality of the morals of the subject of the students? How is the use of values education in school and outside of school?

Some forms of bidding strategy of educational values has been put forward by the experts on education, among others, that values education and character can be accomplished by building efficient partnerships between organizations, family, and civic institutions. These statements are often unreadable in text books, but only as a theory.

1. How are the characters that will be formed?

What is called character can be understood differently by the thinkers in accordance with their approach and emphasis respectively. Therefore, it is not easy to determine definitively what a character is. However, in this paper the author will discuss some of the issues that arise regarding the understanding of the character.

In general, the character often associated with temperament that presents a definition that emphasizes the psychosocial components that are associated with educational and environmental context. In the opinion of behavioral elements that emphasize the individual owned somatopsychic since birth, is considered equal to the character's personality. In this case the character traits or qualities considered typical of a person deriving from the derivatives received from the environment, including life in the family environment in childhood and one's inherent from birth (A Koesoema, 2010).

The question, "is being shown by someone in mannerisms, personality, or behavior that can be someone already dead from there his cap so that everyone is experiencing natural determinism over what is shown in all his behavior and temperament?" Suppose determinism rightly is the extent to which a person is able to have the freedom to solve it?

Talk about character of education, inevitably we must critically question the representation of humans such as what is in our minds. What is presented by Koesoema by quoting the words of educational praxis that Freire relies on a concept of man and the world and to answer the questions that appear questions in education, we need to know the structure of the anthropological is inside the man himself and any attempt to understand the character education first of all have to do is answer questions about basic anthropological structure of fundamental nature as human beings.

Basically, in sensory we can distinguish between the kind people and those who are unkind. The question is whether people are kind and unkind that can be said to those who have the virtue and those who do not have primacy. Whether the good habits and virtues that arguably privilege for only certain people who are born with innate since from birth? If that is true, then the character education is certainly not needed anymore. There is no point in character education since basically a kind human will has always worked well and otherwise, every human being who is unkind will always be unkind. This of course caused controversy, because, in fact, researcher see there are just people who are historically known as the unkind, but now the people are kind, and otherwise. What happens in the process of changing it shows that the human has a dynamic power that can change, and if humans have the power of that dynamic, then the character education is certainly a chance that addresses opportunities for the improvement of the human self. Therefore, character education is still needed. How is the best alternative? Listen to the advice of older people.

2. How are Educational Character Strategies that must be done?

Character of education aims to teach certain traditional values that are widely accepted as the Foundation of good behavior and responsible. These values are also described as ethical behavior. We often hear people saying that we need to teach values to children, usually meant is traditional values or moral behavior. Due to the biennial donations terms character, traditional values and moral behavior accommodates less obvious meanings that sometimes, even controversial. Some educators also more agree with the term character education (Zuchdi, 2009). On the other hand, the author finds reference entitled Ethics Lecture. This makes the author thinks that there's also the term ethics education. Ethics education is closely associated with the character of a person. The character is an old concept that means a set of traits that have always been admired as a sign of kindness, policies, and moral maturity. Although there are numerous differences, the attributes of good character that becomes the purpose of education. Figures are respect, responsibility, compassion, discipline, loyalty, courage, tolerance, openness, work ethic, and trust, as well as the love of God. The latter is particularly important because the quality of faith largely determine the quality of a person's character or personality.

Based on the description, it can be concluded that character education is difficult to be given strict limits, due to the absence of clear indicators so that as long as this character education emphasis is always focused on making ethical values and morals that are always associated with a person's ability to apply the values that are good and beneficial to life.

Pappaseng values that have been outlined at the beginning of this paper can substantially be alternative values education and character. What strategy must be made in the implementation of those values, the educational system is very dependent on the planned character. Along with the implementation of formal education, character education expressly described three main elements which propose the attitude then skill, and knowledge.

The fundamental substance of the curriculum is the curriculum change from 2013 based on cognitive, affective, and psychomotor changed into attitudes, skills, and knowledge. The orientation of the curriculum is to make changes to the 2013 attitudes and behaviors in learners so that the attitude and behavior in accordance with the values that developed in the community (Sumadi, 2013). This shows the serious efforts of the Government to put forward the formation of attitudes as the Foundation to behave and act. But all this is far from enough, to bring closer the learners with the values

that prevail in the communities where they live, and then they should learn within the community itself, without being limited to formal education. Therefore, there is no other way of character education should be established early on, must be returned to their Habitat, the habitat in which they are born, grow, thrive in his/her every day, go back into the family as the first and primary school.

Thus, it is no exaggeration to say that character education is a complex, but education can be handled in a simple if that character education system is designed in a simple, meaning that values education and character cannot be done separately, should be done simultaneously, and integrated in the interact anywhere anytime, and with anyone. Character education should be integrated in all the activities. Therefore, anyone can become a teacher. The teacher does not have to be certified, teachers and civil servants also are not to be determined from the highest academic title and high social status, but the teacher is anyone who has feasibility and appropriateness to be exemplary in lived his life, and exemplary figure is actually hard to find in a global era of technologically complex.

Values education cannot be separated with the norm. In its development, the norm is defined as the size, influence lines, or rules, rules for consideration or judgment. A value that belongs together in a community and has been embedded with deep emotion is going to be mutually agreed norms (Zubair, 1995).

Everything that is rated good, beautiful, or useful will be organized for the manifested in deed. As a result of that effort, there are the measurements for any act or norm of action. Per the norm that has been accepted by the society always contains sanctions and rewards. Everything that is done without the line with norms will get punishment, censure, and so on. On the contrary, everything is done in line with the norm will get praise and retribution. Here's what want delivered by intellectuals of Bugis in the past through pappaseng.

3. Strategy for the Delivery of Pappaseng Values as One of Alternatives in Educational Values and Character

A study of the value and the character has long been the subject of attention of psychologists, pedagogy and educators. It called value and character can be understood differently by the appropriate emphasis and thinkers in their respective approaches. Therefore, it is not easy to determine definitively what character it is.

In this paper, the character is understood as a set of values which manifests in a fighting power system informing the thinking, attitudes, and behaviors of human beings. Characters must be realized through moral values that materialize kind of intrinsic value in them of human. However, the characters had to be established, was spread out, and built consciously and purposefully through the educational process.

As with the other areas, there are different ways to achieve a set of educational objectives. For values education, methods, programs, and curriculum has been developed to help the younger generation in order to achieve a life more personally satisfying and socially more constructive. Judging from its substance, there are four approaches were considered as the main movement in the field of constructive values education, namely: (1) the realization of value, (2) character education, (3) civic education, and (4) moral education (Zuchdi, 2009). As described in an earlier description that in a *papaseng* contained a big idea, a noble mind, precious soul, and a sublime considerations on the nature of the good and bad. Great value in a *pappaseng* packaged in a concept with an abstract meaning so as to understand the meaning that requires specific approaches, because it does not cover the possibility that *pappaseng* the meaning behind it is circumstantial.

Pappaseng can be said to be synonymous with meaningful advice *pangaja*, but *pappaseng* is not quite the same with the word *pangaja* meant 'advice'. *Pappaseng* more emphasis on moral teachings should be kept, while the *pangaja* emphasis on an action that needs to be done or avoided (Mone, 2010).

As a form of expression of the mind, pappaseng are often presented in the various events, meetings, wedding, and speeches and so on. In public speaking, speakers usually deliver the *pappaseng* to turn the atmosphere. Usually the delivery of a speech combined with *pappaseng* will not be boring and more interesting for the listener. Listeners will usually be more serious because *pappaseng* delivered it contained moral messages which felt very helpful in living a life. Nevertheless, it is expected that *pappaseng* not only limited to be heard, but the most important is how *pappaseng* it is practiced and implemented in various aspects of life.

In relation to the value of the education efforts as one of alternative values education and character, some writers have previously been presented with a variety of approaches, methods and strategy. The author suggests some opinions as follows:

a. Wening (2013) suggested several strategies in character education, namely: (1) learning in schools should integrate the values of life through the subject matter conveyed by teachers, (2) teachers need to know and apply the value of learning strategies in accordance with the meaning of the word value, namely a) value identification, b) activity, c) learning aids, d) unit of interaction, and e) evaluation segment.

b. Aswandi (2010) suggests that building a nation through character education can be done through three important things, namely: (1) conditioning, (2) minimal model for example; and (3) integrated education.

c. Harianti (2013) explained that the application of character education requires the cooperation of many parties and also require examples of educational personnel, educators, and parents.

d. Husaini (2013) emphasizes that character education developed in Indonesia, particularly for Muslims, to be Unity of god as based character education.

e. Samsuri (2011) suggests that the ideal character education should include aspects of the formation of the personality that contains the dimensions of the virtues of universal values and cultural awareness in which norms of life

to grow and thrive. In summary, character education transcendental consciousness is able to make individuals capable of constructive behavior in be applied based on the context of a life where he is: has the global consciousness, but is able to act according to local context.

Based on the opinion of some, it can be summarized that shared the values education and character can be done with a few strategies that are considered effective, among others: (1) should be integrated in a variety of learning activities, both formal and informal, (2) values education and character need exemplary, not only theory, (3) in its implementation needs conditioning, (4) should reflect back and based on the virtues of universal values that have been embedded in the cultural life of the past with norms of life that are arranged in the form of culture without neglecting the awareness global.

IV. CONCLUSION

The main values that are contained in the *pappaseng* include: the value of *alempureng* (Honesty), *r éso* (hard work), *assitulung-tulungeng*, *assiwolompolongeng* (mutual cooperation), *agettengeng*(Firmness), *awaraningeng* (Courage), *Sipakatau* (humanizing respect). A fundamental human value which is the philosophy of the society since Bugis ancient can be a sturdy grounding in Bugis society character formation in particular and the nation in general character.

The concerns of the various parties about the character education is currently showing the condition of education that is truly serious, and should be addressed seriously, and one of the best alternative is to "restore the society to Culture" in the sense that includes ways of thinking, viewpoints and beliefs that can form a value that becomes the cornerstone of the formation of attitudes, behaviors, and actions of the community. Without concern for local wisdom values and let the *panngadereng* system ' culture, ' ravaged by a current swept the modernization of global lifestyle with a very strong character, this nation will be crushed to pieces, morality becomes something that is not important anymore, hollering at each other, acts of violence, and destroy each other no matter again, violations of the law occurred everywhere no matter, all become the phenomenon of life in the era of modernization and globalization.

Values education and character can be done with some effective strategies, among other things: (1) be integrated in a variety of learning activities, both formal and informal, (2) performed by giving the example, not only theory, (3) performed with conditioning, (4) should reflect back and based on the virtues of universal values that have been embedded in the cultural life of the past with norms of life that are arranged in the form of culture without neglecting global awareness.

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On the Classification of Subtitling

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Abstract—Subtitling is one of the two most common modes of audiovisual translation. The starting point of research on subtitling might be its classification. As the types of subtitles in existence seem too varied to be accounted for, the classification of them risks being overlapping, intricate or meticulous, which would make a systematic study of the subject all the harder. In view of the pitfalls of classification, the principles of being simple, clear and inclusive in classifying subtitles are established. Guided by those principles and measured by the major linguistic and technical parameters, the existing types and new types of subtitles can be classified and grouped into corresponding categories, exhibiting distinctive characteristics and targeting different audiences. The classification proposed and the types of subtitles discussed in this paper will shed some light on how subtitling can be conducted in the future in the hope of assisting both academic research and professional practice.

Index Terms—subtitling, parameter, classification, audiovisual translation, fansubbing

I. INTRODUCTION

Up to now, research has not done justice to audiovisual translation as a whole, not to say subtitling, which has been largely ignored by translation studies. Some scholars refuse to acknowledge its status, as Fawcett (1996, p.69) once pointed out, “in view of the synchronization requirement some have even questioned whether it should be considered a type of translation at all”. However, with the increasing recognition of audiovisual translation or screen translation as an important discipline within the scope of translation studies, research on subtitling has gained momentum.

There is no denying that subtitling is one of the two most common modes of audiovisual translation, with the other being dubbing. It is “A[a] term used to refer to one of the two main methods of language transfer used in translating types of mass audio-visual communication such as film and television” (Shuttleworth & Cowie, 2004, p.61). Varied as its conceptions are, it is generally agreed that subtitles are translated utterances, written translations or written target texts. Luyken et al. (1991, p.31), the earliest scholars engaged in the study of this field, understood subtitles as:

... condensed written translations of original dialogue which appear as lines of text, usually positioned towards the foot of the screen. Subtitles appear and disappear to coincide in time with the corresponding portion of the original dialogue and are almost always added to the screen image at a later date as a post-production activity.

This description outlines the most distinctive characteristics of subtitling in terms of the content (*written translations*), position (*the foot of the screen*), presentation (*synchrony*), production (*post-production activity*) and nature (*additive*).

Subtitling is used for some audiovisual products, such as cinema, television, video, DVD, LaserDisc, CDROM, computer games, Internet and live performances, etc. It enjoys some advantages over dubbing, as “an inexpensive, quick, foreign-culture friendly and generally fairly politically correct mode of screen translation” (O’Connell, 2007, p.67). Subtitling poses new challenges to traditional translation, like the space and time constraints inherent in the subtitling process, the visual conventions, the shift of modes from speech to writing as well as other challenges that have been brought along. One of them is its classification, which might be the starting point of any scholarly work on this subject. It is no easy task. The difficulty lies not only in the multitude of the types in existence, but also in the fact that it has a lot to do not with language alone but with technology, etc. Anyway, a proper and easily accessible classification will sure help both the scholarly study of subtitling and its professional practice.

II. GUIDING PRINCIPLES OF CLASSIFICATION

Prior to the discussion of the types of subtitles as classified by the author, mention should be made of some other approaches in an attempt to shed some light on the guiding principles of classification to be presented here. To this end, two approaches, namely one of the earliest and one of the latest classifications, are chosen as cases in point since both display some flaws to be guarded against in this paper.

Jan Ivarsson (1992), a much cited authority on subtitling, once proposed a classification, in which linguistic and technical parameters, as well as other parameters, like areas of application, audience, writing skills and time, are present. By those parameters, he distinguished six types: subtitling for cinema and television, multilingual subtitling, teletext subtitling, reduced subtitling, subtitling live or in real time, the translation of opera, theatrical works, conferences, etc. For easy reading, Ivarsson’s categories are explained in table 1 drafted by the author, with each type having its own focal point (marked by “+”) (Bartoll, 2004).

TABLE 1
JAN IVARSSON'S CLASSIFICATION OF SUBTITLES (1992)

parameters	areas of application	languages	technology	audience	writing skills	time
types						
subtitling for cinema and television	+					
multilingual subtitling		+				
teletext subtitling			+ used on television	the hard of hearing		
reduced subtitling	news or live events, such as sports broadcasts		similar to teletext		+ reduction	
subtitling live or in real time	basically the same as reduced subtitling		using a special apparatus that allows for faster writing		faster writing	+
the translation of opera, theatrical works, conferences, etc.	+		using a special screen to display the titles			

While Ivarsson's categories seem intricate and exact careful sorting, Eduard Bartoll distinguishes his types based on more meticulous parameters. Eduard Bartoll (2004, pp.55-57) lists as many as nine parameters, including placing, the filing of subtitles, localization, mobility, optionality, time, audiovisual product to be subtitled, channel/means of broadcast and colour. His types are demonstrated in table 2:

TABLE 2
EDUARD BARTOLL'S CLASSIFICATION OF SUBTITLES (2004)

Parameters	Types of subtitles
placing	centred and non-centred subtitles
the filing of subtitles	inseparable and separable part, like electronic subtitles
localization	subtitles, intertitles and surtitles
mobility	mobile and fixed subtitles
optionality	optional or closed subtitles and non-optional or open subtitles
time	pre-recorded and simultaneous subtitles
audiovisual product to be subtitled	cinema, television, video, DVD, LaserDisc, CDROM, computer games, Internet (Streaming Video), and live performances
channel/means of broadcast	through an impression upon the audiovisual product itself, by teletext, on a display, e.g. electronic, projected on top of the product or on a nearby screen or by simultaneous broadcasting
colour	depending on the interlocutors; the colour of the film, whether in black and white or colour; and the products to be subtitled

Both approaches exhibit the same drawback, that is to say, both try to be exhaustive but in the end turn out to be too overlapping or meticulous to be applicable. Just think about the types as varied as people's thumbprints which would render them almost unclassifiable and unaccountable. Such classifications, though they encompass almost all the types in existence in the corresponding periods, would leave most of us even more confused, thus fail the purpose of classification. It is revealed that a very sophisticated and intricate classification can go nowhere but make a systematic study of the subject all the harder. In light of the perception, it is desirable that a classification should fulfill two conditions though it is often quite hard to achieve: first, it needs to be as simple and clear as possible in order to provide guidance for academic research; second it needs to be inclusive enough, highlighting the most distinctive features, to cover the existing types. Those are the guiding principles of classification to be adopted here. Under the principles, two distinctions can be made, the traditional classification and the new classification, within each of which some major types of subtitles are outlined, based on different parameters.

III. TRADITIONAL CLASSIFICATION

Traditionally, there are two ways of classifying subtitles, based on two different parameters, linguistic and technical, despite the existence of other less frequently used parameters.

A. Linguistic Parameter

Speaking of the linguistic parameter, one immediately thinks of language, as it is the most distinctive feature in this group, which will become the starting point of traditional classification. The parameter of language, as Bartoll (2004, p.57) puts it, signifies "the relationship that is established between source and target languages, whether this is the same or not." In line with his understanding, there are interlingual and intralingual subtitles or subtitling (Gottlieb, 1997, 2005; Shuttleworth & Cowie, 2004; Bartoll, 2004). With a slight difference in wording, D'áz Cintas (2001) also names two, intralinguistic subtitles and interlinguistic subtitles, in addition to a number of other types.

1. Interlingual subtitling

Interlingual subtitling, according to Gottlieb (1997), literally is the subtitling between two languages. It is a “transfer from a source language (SL) to a TL”, designating the relationship between different source and target languages (D'áz Cintas, 2006, p.199). Or to use an alternative term, interlinguistic subtitles, which occur “where there is translation” (Bartoll, 2004, p.57). This type is similar to multilingual subtitling in Ivarsson's categories. The essence of this type is that there must be a transfer or translation between two different languages, though it refers to subtitling instead of traditional written translation. It should be noticed that in this group not only two languages are involved but also two dimensions, speech and writing. Therefore, this type is alternatively called “diagonal subtitling” or “oblique subtitling” by Gottlieb (1997, pp.71–72), meaning that both mode and language are changed, crossing over from speech in one language to writing in another language.

2. Intralingual subtitling

According to Gottlieb's (1997) classification, intralingual subtitling is the subtitling within the same language. It concerns the relationship between the same source and target languages. Alternatively, it is called intralinguistic, and since it works between the same languages, intralinguistic subtitles occur “where there is transcription” (Bartoll, 2004, p.57). D'áz Cintas (2006, p.199) echoes this view and affirms no change of language, thus he calls it “captioning”. Like interlingual subtitling, it touches upon dimensions as well. Gottlieb (2005, p.247) dubs it “vertical” subtitling, which means that only mode is changed, but not language, taking speech down in writing in the original language. This type is mainly targeted at the following groups of people: the deaf and hard of hearing, language learners and karaoke singers (D'áz Cintas, 2001, 2006; Gottlieb, 2005; O'Connell, 2007). The first two groups are explained specifically.

(1) The deaf and hard of hearing

Surprisingly in such countries as the UK and the US, the concept of subtitling is generally equated with intralingual (English into English) subtitling for the deaf and hard-of-hearing (SDH) (D'áz Cintas & Anderman, 2009). But in other countries, intralingual subtitling needs to be specified in this regard. For those deaf and hard of hearing, this process involves not only turning the actors' dialogues into written speech, but also keeping all the paratextual information vital for plot development and scene-setting, which is inaccessible to deaf people if merely from the soundtrack, like telephones ringing, knocks on the door, etc. (D'áz Cintas, 2006). This type of subtitling is gaining power nowadays, thanks to the efforts of pressure groups in promoting the interests of those with hearing problems. Some television channels, such as the BBC, are committed to broadcasting a high percentage of their programmes with intralingual subtitles. The BBC, for instance, vows to raise the present percentage of programmes/hours of 66% that are subtitled for the hard of hearing to 80% by 2004 and 100% soon afterwards (D'áz Cintas, 2006, p.203).

(2) Language learners

Language learners constitute another group targeted by intralingual subtitling. This group encompasses foreign students along with other minorities such as immigrants, refugees, or those with literacy problems, who intend to improve their language skills by watching television programmes and making use of their audio and visual input (Vanderplank, 1988). An example of bi-modal L2 input is the situation in which English speakers viewing a Russian language film with Russian subtitles. For the same purpose, bilingual subtitles, as categorized by D'áz Cintas (2001), are used as well. The use of subtitles in language learning, in particular, second language acquisition, is a subject of much value to teachers and scholars, and therefore merits further research.

(3) dialects

As for those suited for intralingual subtitling, one group often goes unnoticed — the audience having problems with dialects. Subtitling dialects, which is quite common now, should be added to the list.

Intralingual subtitling is chiefly used for television, including some domestic and foreign-language programmes for different groups with different purposes. It is, according to de Linde (1999), non-existent in cinema. But in reality, the use of intralingual subtitling can be found in cinema when, for instance, the actors on screen, as conditioned by the roles they are playing, speak with accents which are difficult for certain audience to understand even though they share the same language. A case in point is the British film *Trainspotting* (Danny Boyle, 1996) which was released with subtitles in the United States, for the actors speak English with a strong Scottish accent which is difficult for the US audience generally (D'áz Cintas, 2006). In some cases, dialects are required to be translated for the sake of the rest of countrymen, which often occurs in Flanders (Remael et al., 2008).

The same practice can be found in Italy where since the early 1990s a group of filmmakers from the south of the country have needed their local dialect, the predominant language in their films, subtitled. Abele Longo delved into this subject. In the essay *Subtitling the Italian south*, Longo used two films by Cipri and Maresco's *Tot ò che visse due volte*, set in Palermo, and Piva's *LaCapaGira*, set in Bari, to discuss the diegetic value of the intralingual subtitles needed in the original version and came with some impressive findings (D'áz Cintas, 2009).

Intralingual subtitling is practiced in China, a country with more than 50 ethnic groups who speak their own dialects. Even within the Han Group, dialects still vary though they share the same language. In China, intralingual subtitles are used both on TV and in cinema. The domestic TV programmes broadcast with mandarin subtitles help foster audience's comprehension of the content and popularize mandarin. In Chinese cinema, when some dialects are used in the domestic films, or the actors speak with accents, the films are usually subtitled with mandarin.

3. Other linguistic parameters

From the linguistic perspective, mention should be made of Luyken's classification (1991), in which he divides subtitling into traditional subtitling and simultaneous subtitling, the former including subtitling in complete sentences, reduced sentences and bilingual sentences. It seems that he regards sentences as the yardstick against which to measure some types of subtitling.

The linguistic parameter is not only limited to language, but is "complemented by the purpose the subtitles have for the transmitter" (Bartoll, 2004, p.57). By this parameter, subtitles are distinguished between instrumental subtitles and documentary subtitles, following Christiane Nord's terminology (1995). Instrumental subtitles are subtitles in an attempt to communicate in the target language. They involve both translation and transcription (fundamentally reduced) of an oral text and target people who either do not understand it in another language or because they cannot hear it due to hearing impairment. Documentary subtitles, on the other hand, encompass only transcription (fundamentally complete), and are meant for people with different purposes, for learning languages or singing karaoke, etc. (Bartoll, 2004)

B. Technical Parameter

Besides linguistic parameter, technical parameter is another important yardstick of classifying subtitles. From a technical perspective, there is usually a dichotomy between open subtitles and closed subtitles (Gottlieb, 1997, 2005; D íaz Cintas, 2001; Shuttleworth & Cowie, 2004; Bartoll, 2004; O'Connell, 2007). Bartoll (2004) uses the parameter of optionality (see Table 2) to distinguish the two, open subtitles are non-optional, which means that the viewer cannot decide if he wants the subtitles to appear on the screen, for the subtitles are always present, while closed subtitles are known as optional subtitles, as the viewer can decide if he wants the subtitles to appear on the screen.

1. Open subtitles

Open subtitles are subtitles that constitute part of the original film or broadcast and cannot be removed from the screen (Gottlieb, 1997, 2005; Shuttleworth & Cowie, 2004; O'Connell, 2007). They are also called burnt-on subtitles because they were once etched on to the film celluloid using acid, but this is replaced by laser technology now (O'Connell, 2007).

This type is most often used in three areas: cinema, television, and sometimes videos. Gottlieb (1997) maintains that all film subtitling belongs within this category. Open subtitles are used to carry interlingual translation for foreign language films shown in cinemas. Technically, they are either a physical part of the film as in films for public viewing or transmitted separately as at festival screenings. Similarly, they are used for television programmes with the original soundtrack, often transmitted terrestrially and broadcast as part of the television picture. As for videos, open interlingual subtitles, as a much cheaper option than dubbing, are used on many foreign language videos.

2. Closed subtitles

Closed subtitles, known as "captions" in the US (O'Connell, 2007, p.133), first occurred on television in the 1970s with the development of technology, such as Teletext technology, cable or satellite channels (Bartoll, 2004, O'Connell, 2007, Gottlieb, 2005). They are usually encoded in the transmission signal, broadcast separately, and then selected by those viewers on a remote-control unit with a teletext television set and a decoder. In addition to television, they are found in DVD, on the Internet (Streaming Video) and in LaserDisc.

The targeted audience includes the deaf and hard of hearing, who need to be assisted by subtitles, mainly intralingual subtitles, with longer exposure time and explanatory information such as 'The clock ticks' to supplement the sound. It is also possible to encode them on videos, due to the efforts of the National Captioning Institute (NCI) in the United States on behalf of the deaf viewers. Closed subtitles are also aimed at different speech communities. Sometimes, the closed interlingual television subtitles are transmitted by satellite, offering different speech communities different versions of the same programme simultaneously.

3. Other technical parameters

This dichotomy between open and closed subtitles does not rule out the possibility of other technology-related types, for instance, in Jan Ivarsson's categories (see Table 1), there are teletext subtitling, subtitling live or in real time, subtitling for opera, theatrical works, conferences, etc., which employ special technologies. The parameters arrayed by Bartoll also have a lot to do with technology, like the following (see Table 2): 1) audiovisual products to be subtitled; 2) channel/means of broadcast; 3) the filing of subtitles, etc. Bartoll also listed another technology-related type, the so-called electronic subtitles which are projected through luminous panels. By those parameters, some more types of subtitles can be distinguished.

The above-mentioned categories, either from a linguistic or technical perspective, can be grouped under the heading of traditional subtitling. But note should be taken of Díaz Cintas's categories of subtitling (2001), in which he juxtaposes traditional subtitling and simultaneous subtitling, along with intralinguistic, interlinguistic and bilingual subtitles, open and closed subtitles.

IV. NEW TYPES OF SUBTITLES

No other types of translation have such a close tie with technological development than audiovisual translation. Subtitling that falls into this domain goes hand in hand with new technical advances, and accordingly new types of subtitles emerge, which have not been sufficiently accounted for by those pioneers in this area of studies. The

parameters to be capitalized on are still along the lines discussed previously or the combination of them, as those parameters are general enough to embrace the existing forms of subtitles, and simultaneously remain open to other types yet to come. This way the classification can stay straightforward and easily understandable. Two major new developments worth mentioning, either linguistically or technically, are interlingual subtitling for the deaf and hard of hearing and amateur subtitling.

1. Interlingual subtitling for the deaf and hard of hearing (SDH)

Along the linguistic line, the new type that has emerged recently is the interlingual subtitling for the deaf and hard of hearing (SDH). The type of subtitling most often designated for the hearing impaired is intralingual subtitling. But this brings to the fore the question if those people with hearing problems only watch programmes in their mother tongue and never in a different language. Common sense tells us that the possibility of the latter cannot be ruled out.

With the assumption that standard interlingual subtitles can provide enough information for all, this type has not been adequately accounted for in many countries. For instance, in Portugal, Greece and the Scandinavian countries, interlingual subtitling for the deaf and hard-of-hearing is “rarely seen as a specific kind of subtitling” (Díaz Cintas & Anderman, 2009, p.13). But the awareness is being heightened that interlingual subtitling for the deaf and hard of hearing differs from that for the ordinary viewers with no hearing problems, for the standard interlingual subtitles don't cater for this special group of audience and turn out to be inappropriate for their needs. Jos éia Neves, who takes special interest in this subject, points out that the standard interlingual subtitles have two drawbacks: either they offer more information than those deaf viewers can digest, or they need to add more for the adequate transference of the whole semiotic message (D íaz Cintas & Anderman, 2009). In a word, the needs of this special group should be adequately dealt with in order to gain true access to audiovisual material.

This type is made technically possible by the advent of digital television and DVDs in particular. The film *Thelma & Louise* (Ridley Scott, 1991), for instance, can be bought on DVD with two sets of subtitled in German incorporated, one for ordinary viewers and the other for the hearing impaired (D íaz Cintas, 2006). Those technologies enable the deaf viewers to watch programmes in a number of languages usually unavailable in cinema. Despite the fact that some DVDs now do carry the option of interlingual SDH, it is by no means a common practice in most countries.

2. Amateur subtitling

As the nature of AVT foreshadows its close link with the latest technical developments, the emergence of new audiovisual products, like Internet, videogames or DVDs and the new computer-based techniques, necessitates new subtitling possibilities. Thanks to the ubiquity of the Internet and the use of freeware computer programs, another new type is made possible, namely amateur subtitling. What falls into this category includes fansubbing. It is said that fansubs came into existence in the late 1980s (Bogucki, 2009, p.49). Fansubs are originally subtitles “of various Japanese anime productions made unofficially by fans for non-Japanese viewers” (ibid.). But now this activity goes well beyond those Japanese anime productions to cover any foreign film or program, as the following describes:

A fansub (short for *fan-subtitled*) is a version of a foreign film or foreign television program which has been translated by fans (as opposed to an officially licensed translation done by professionals) and subtitled into a language other than that of the original. (<http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Fansub>)

The practice of making fansubs is called fansubbing and it is done by a fansubber. Fansubs can simply be understood as subtitles “by fans for fans” (D íaz Cintas, 2009, p.11). This type of subtitling is more creative and idiosyncratic than traditional subtitling, and it is not directed toward the market but the free distribution of audiovisual programmes over the Internet. In Łukasz Bogucki's words, the main purpose of fansubbing is:

... to make a contribution in an area of particular interest and to popularise it in other countries, making it accessible to a broader range of viewers/readers, who belong to different linguistic communities (Bogucki, 2009, p.49).

Fansubbing usually follows a series of procedures. First, a copy of the original material, which is an unaltered native language source (called a “raw”), needs to be obtained, ideally from the highest quality source material available. Second, the script is subtitled and synced to the media. There are two types of fansubs, hard and soft subtitles. Hard subtitles are encoded into the source material while soft subtitles are mixed to the video from another data file, enabling the display of subtitles to be switched by the viewer, or the data file to be altered. (<http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Fansub>) Digital subtitling programmes are used in fansubbing. Many of such programmes are available online, such as Subtitle Workshop, Media Subtiter, Virtual Dub and Aegisub, which have become a common occurrence in the practice (D íaz Cintas, 2009).

With its being a fairly new phenomenon, the academic research on fansubbing is scarce. One notable contribution is made by Bogucki in his *Amateur Subtitling on the Internet*. He does not survey the global situation in this regard, but only takes a look at Polish subtitles, with one film *The Fellowship of the Ring* in mind, in an effort to investigate the criteria for quality assessment and their application to audiovisual translation (D íaz Cintas & Anderman, 2009). In Bogucki's findings, he notices a big disadvantage of amateur subtitling: “a multitude of mistakes and misinterpretations” are likely to occur, due to the low-quality of the recording and the poor grasp of the original dialogue (the Source Text) by the subtitler. (D íaz Cintas & Anderman, 2009, p.10)

Ever since its existence, amateur subtitling has had some legal and ethical issues that still remain to be resolved today. Not only is its status open to discussion, but also its characteristics, for instance, whether the traditional subtitling conventions and strategies still remain useful in this new form. It is argued that the constraints governing professional

subtitling and amateur subtitling are dramatically different. Some interesting impacts of this new type on other types of subtitling can be highlighted, like the use of the translator's notes on the screen, which is sometimes applied in some commercialized films and audiovisual programmes (D'áz Cintas, 2009). With the hurdles in amateur subtitling overcome, this new form is sure to flourish in the audiovisual field.

V. CONCLUSION

The types of subtitles discussed here are designed for different programmes, audiences or purposes. Some scholars propose the production of different subtitles for the same programme. Neves, for instance, advocates the provision of multiple solutions for each audiovisual programme, like dubbing, interlingual subtitles, intralingual and interlingual SDH, adapted subtitling, so that those subtitles can best suit the specific needs of different audiences (D'áz Cintas & Anderman, 2009). Whether it is practically possible is still being hotly debated, but it will shine a light on how subtitling can be conducted in the future.

Subtitling, or audiovisual translation in general, exhibits the great potential for new progress. Those different types, with new developments and innovations under way, promise to challenge, if not threaten, the future of audiovisual translation modes and conventions, bringing in new insights and inspirations. With the evolution of AVT, keeping abreast of all the latest developments in technology, in particular, the interaction of different media, subtitling, together with other modes of AVT, merits further scholarly attention and professional innovation, in the hope of assisting both scholars and translators in their respective areas of work.

NOTE:

The films mentioned in this paper:

1. *Trainspotting*, a 1996 British black comedy/drama film directed by Danny Boyle based on the novel of the same name by Irvine Welsh and starring Ewan McGregor, Ewen Bremner, Jonny Lee Miller, Kevin McKidd, Robert Carlyle, and Kelly Macdonald.
2. *Totò che visse due volte*, a 1997 Italian film directed by Daniele Cipriani and Franco Maresco, a film with 3 episodes set in Palermo, a port on the north coast, the capital of Sicily, starring Salvatore Gattuso.
3. *LaCapaGira*, a 2000 Italian film directed by Alessandro Piva, set in Bari, an industrial seaport on the Adriatic coast of southeast Italy.
4. *Thelma & Louise*, a 1991 adventure female buddy film directed by Ridley Scott and written by Callie Khouri. It stars Geena Davis as Thelma and Susan Sarandon as Louise.
5. *The Fellowship of the Ring*, a 2001 epic fantasy film directed by Peter Jackson based on the first volume of J. R. R. Tolkien's *The Lord of the Rings* (1954–1955). It is the first installment in the series, followed by *The Two Towers* (2002) and *The Return of the King* (2003).

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The Effect of the Keyword Method and Word-list Method Instruction on ESP Vocabulary Learning

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Abstract—The present study examined the effect of the keyword method and word-list method instruction on ESP vocabulary learning across proficiency levels. Two groups of students at Islamic Azad University of South Tehran branch were selected with the total population of 120 Industrial engineering intermediate students with an average age of 21. The students of each class were divided into two different homogeneous groups, the upper-intermediate level and the lower- intermediate level, based on their scores on the Oxford Placement Test. Each class was instructed through a specified method of vocabulary learning, i.e. the keyword method and word-list method, for an equal time of four weeks. Following both treatments, a multiple-choice test was administered to each class as the post-test to find out the ESP students' vocabulary knowledge. The results of the study indicated that the upper-intermediate learners who received the keyword method instruction outperformed the upper-intermediate learners who received the word-list method. In addition, the lower-intermediate level students in the keyword method group had better performance than those in the word-list method. Moreover, regardless of the proficiency level of the students, all of the students in the keyword method group obtained higher scores than those in the word-list method group. The results of the study revealed that the keyword method instruction has superiority over the word-lists method in learning ESP vocabulary regarding the proficiency level of the students.

Index Terms—keyword method, word-list method, ESP vocabulary

I. INTRODUCTION

In second language acquisition, vocabulary is an essential element in the four skills of speaking, listening, reading and writing. In order to communicate well in a foreign language, students should know a sufficient number of words and be familiar with how to use them correctly (Tabatabaei & Hossainzadeh Hejazi, 2011).

However, this endless number of words may discourage many students who do not know how to memorize them rapidly. "ESP learners also experience the same problem because they learn English as a means to achieve their subject-specific and ultimately their occupational goals both receptively and productively in their field of study" (Akbari, 2011, p. 7). The specialized words that ESP learners use are made up of words that occur frequently in a specialized text or subject area, but do not occur or are of very low frequency in other fields (Chung & Nation, 2004).

Deciding about and selecting the methods to memorize and then internalize the words is the most important step in learning vocabularies (Amiryousefi & Ketabi, 2011). In deciding which vocabulary-learning strategies should be recommended to EFL learners, teachers should consider factors that include L1, their motivation and purposes for learning the L2, the task and text being used, the nature of the L2 itself and learners' proficiency level (Schmitt, 2007).

According to Schmitt (2007), "vocabulary-learning strategy is an approach, which facilitates vocabulary learning and has attracted considerable attention. Strategies can help learners both in discovering the meaning of a word, and consolidating it, and are especially needed when students are encouraged to learn" (Amiryousefi & Ketabi, 2011, p. 178).

Among all of the vocabulary-learning strategies, one of the best and most effective strategies in improving both immediate and delayed retention of second language vocabulary is the keyword method (Atkinson & Raugh, 1975). In this method, learners work to make a link system, also called the "Chain system". The items are linked together to form a chain of associations. They allow the storage of information in memory in a way that it will be able to find it and get it back out when necessary (Higbee, 2007).

According to Baleghizadeh & Ashoori (2010, p. 252) "two stages are involved in this strategy: first, a connection based on acoustic similarities is made between a new word and a familiar word (keyword) and second, an imaginable link that associates the target word and the keyword together is made".

On the other hand, the word-list method, also called list learning, is one of the old-fashioned vocabulary learning strategies, which needs more rehearsal. It consists of a sheet of paper on which learners write both the target word and its meaning. "Both teachers and learners can generate the strategy; however, the words are learned out of context and the main emphasis is on repetition and memorization, not meaningful learning" (Baleghizadeh & Ashoori, 2010, p. 252).

As many foreign language learners claim that the major obstacle in learning a new language is learning the vocabulary of that language not the structure, the aim of this study is to investigate the comparative effect of the keyword method and word-list method instruction on ESP vocabulary learning across two lower-intermediate and two upper-intermediate proficiency groups.

Regarding the foregoing discussion, the purpose of this study is to answer the following research question:

Is there any significant difference between the effectiveness of the keyword method and the word-list method instruction on ESP vocabulary learning across different proficiency levels?

II. REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Atay and Ozbulgan (2007) believe that successful vocabulary learners are considered as active strategy users who are aware of their own learning and try to maintain it, whereas poor learners do not have enough information about how to use various strategies to learn new words or connect the new words to their previous knowledge.

In this regard, many studies have been conducted on the effectiveness of the keyword method and word-list method instruction alone or in comparison to the other methods of vocabulary learning and many different findings about the usefulness of this method have been emerged.

Some researchers (Amiryousefi and Ketabi; 2011, Atay and Ozbulgan; 2007, Baleghizadeh and Ashoori; 2010, Tabatabaei and Hossainzadeh Hejazi; 2011) believed on the superiority of the keyword method to the other methods of vocabulary learning and stated that the keyword method can improve vocabulary learning.

The majority of the students prefer a course that engages them in the learning process because they feel satisfied with methods that reduce their stress of vocabulary learning. The keyword method helps learners to learn better and faster, have longer and better retention and change teacher-centred classrooms to student-centred ones (Ashoori, 2012).

In this regard, "keyword method is a useful way for enhancing vocabulary learning because the keyword method provided a meaningful visual image upon which to base memory for a new word's meaning" (Tabatabaei and Hossainzadeh Hejazi, 2011, p.273).

Jenpattarakul (2012) believed that using the keyword method instruction had three positive effects on the students: first, the students could store and retrieve a new set of vocabularies, and second it expanded and enhanced the students' imagination and creativity. It means that the more imagination and creativity the students had, the better they could memorize vocabulary. Third, students' motivation to learn English vocabularies increased because motivation could improve the students' proficiency level. Using the keyword method in the classroom can help students to retain the words in their long-term memory and store them easily.

According to Lin and Cheng (2008), applying the keyword method instruction caused a strong link between the target words and their definitions and positively affected the processing of meaning in memory. It seems that the keyword method produced greater learning effects than other semantic based or controlled learning conditions. Moreover, the keyword method is easily adaptable to foreign and second language classroom situation.

Richmond, Cummings and Klapp (2008) believed that mnemonic instruction should be expanded to other fields of study especially when instructional objectives require the acquisition and retention of science vocabulary and facts.

Not in line with the results of Atkinson and Rough (1975), who believed that the keyword method is good for beginners, Taguchi (2006) found that using the keyword method facilitates learning of older and experienced learners and improved only the productive rather than the receptive mode of learning.

Ashoori (2012) compared the effects of the keyword, context and word-list method instruction on long-term vocabulary recall of elementary female students and reached to the conclusion that the students in the keyword group instruction had better performance than the students in the other two groups on both cued-recall and word-recall tests. This study confirmed the powerful impact of the keyword method instruction on the learners' memory in recalling newly learned vocabulary items because of three reasons. First, according to the dual-coding theory, two complementary systems of storage, a semantic or verbal system, an image-based system, and the received information existing in the brain are processed in two distinct and interactive ways. Since in the keyword method, information is provided through two channels (visual and verbal), it yields superior retention compared to semantic-context technique, which provides information just through the verbal channel. The second reason is related to the remembering and self-consciousness of learners during the learning process. In comparing the context group to the keyword method group, it is stated that advanced level learners are able to use the context method more than the elementary and intermediate level learners.

In comparing keyword method to word-list method, Rashidi and Sajjadi (2010) also reached the conclusion that, "the keyword method facilitates literal recall of new vocabulary definitions at the expense of the ability to use the vocabulary in any different context" (p. 64). Moreover, in line with the results of Hauptmann (2004), who believed that keyword method facilitates learning of both abstract and concrete words, the researchers stated that students who learn vocabulary through the keyword method instruction are better able to use new words even if these words are abstract. It means, "The students do not bother themselves memorizing long lists of vocabularies and do not forget the words as soon as they put the list away" (p. 64).

Khosravizadeh and Gerami (2011) believed that the younger the one was, the more words the one could recall with the help of word-list method instruction. In other words, becoming older affects the degree of recall.

Baleghizadeh and Ashoori (2011) stated that using word-list method may result in some problems of attention. "It may be the case that some words may receive more attention compared to the other words in the list due to their particular positions. Nevertheless, there is no evidence of the existence of such a problem in learning with other methods since they tend to be more flexible" (p. 7).

According to Hayati Samian and Tavakoli (2012) rote-learning strategy was the most frequently used strategy among Iranian EFL learners. In addition, there is a direct relationship between the proficiency level of the students and rote learning strategy use. It means that the high-proficiency level students tend to be considered rote learning strategies just as one of the ways of learning vocabulary, and low-proficiency level students tend to use rote learning strategies as the best and the most fundamental strategy.

In addition, Yang and Dai (2012) stated that "students prefer to engage in the vocabulary learning strategies that would be most appealing to them and that would entail less manipulation of the language" (p. 208). It means that learning words in a mechanical fashion is more time consuming and leads to faster forgetting. In addition, rote-repetition, as a traditional way of vocabulary-learning strategies, is still favoured by many language learners, especially those at the initial and intermediate stages. Association, as one of the most useful strategies for vocabulary learning is frequently used by language learners in their attempts to commit words to long-term memory" (pp. 211& 209).

Nevertheless, in recent years, few studies have been conducted on the comparative effect of the keyword method and word-list method on the retention of ESP vocabulary learning, especially concerning the proficiency level of the students. Thus, the present study aimed to fill this gap in the literature.

III. METHOD

a) Participants

120 intermediate industrial engineering learners were selected randomly from two classes of Islamic Azad University of South Tehran branch, Iran. In each class, the participants were divided into two different groups by means of Oxford placement test: the lower-intermediate group and the upper-intermediate group. In each class, the thirty students who obtained the top scores of this test made up the upper-intermediate level group. The lower-intermediate level group consisted of the other thirty students who obtained the lowest test-scores of the class. All of the participants had the same educational and language background.

b) Instruments

The instruments used in this study were questionnaires and tests. The questionnaire was used to elicit the demographical details from the participants. The questions on this questionnaire included the items about the gender, age and the educational and language background of the participants. In addition, questions about the way and strategies of memorizing the vocabularies were also included.

The tests, used in this study, comprised two separate sections: one pre-test and one post-test. The first part of the test was the proficiency test (placement test) which was used to make a distinction between the students' mastery of vocabulary knowledge in English and the second part was the multiple-choice vocabulary test which was used to investigate the effects of both treatments at the end of the study.

c) Teaching Materials

Thirty-two vocabulary items were selected from the content of English for the students of Industrial Engineering, book *III: Industrial system analysis*, written by Dr. Mohammad Fallahi Moghimi, as a teaching material. These vocabulary items including four lists of eight ESP words and each vocabulary list was taught in each teaching session (Appendix E).

The difficulty levels of these vocabulary lists were checked with a few experts and were controlled for several times. These vocabulary lists were arranged from simple to difficult based on the order of the chapters of the English for the students of Industrial Engineering, book *III: Industrial system analysis*.

d) Procedure

The study was conducted on two ESP classes of Islamic Azad University of South Tehran Branch. Based on the scores of the students on the Oxford Placement Test in each class, the students were divided into lower-intermediate level group and the upper-intermediate level group. After that, the whole population of each class, regardless of their proficiency levels, received two different treatments for four weeks.

In the first class, the students learned ESP vocabularies through the keyword method instruction and in the second class, the students learned ESP vocabularies through the word-list method instruction. Then, the post-test was administered.

IV. RESULTS AND ANALYSIS

In order to answer the research question of this study, which addressed the effect of the keyword method and word-list method instruction on ESP students' vocabulary learning regarding their proficiency levels, a two-way ANOVA was applied. The results of two-way ANOVA were summarized in Table 1.

TABLE 1.
THE DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF THE STUDENTS' SCORES

High/Low Proficiency	Keyword/Word list	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
upper-intermediate	Keyword Method	19.80	.407	30
	Word list Method	17.43	.679	30
	Total	18.62	1.316	60
Lower-intermediate	Keyword Method	18.67	.479	30
	Word list Method	15.07	.868	30
	Total	16.87	1.944	60
Total	Keyword Method	19.23	.722	60
	Word list Method	16.25	1.422	60
	Total	17.74	1.872	120

According to the results of Table 1, there is a statistical difference between the mean scores and standard deviations of the upper-intermediate students in the keyword method and word-list method group. The upper-intermediate students who received the keyword method instruction got higher mean scores than the upper-intermediate students who received the word-list method instruction. It means that the upper-intermediate students in the keyword method group, with the mean of 19.80 and standard deviation of the 0.407, had better performance than those in the word-list method class, with the mean of 17.43 and standard deviation of the 0.679.

In the case of the lower-intermediate groups, the results of Table 1 show that the mean scores and standard deviation of students in the keyword method and word-list method instructions are different. That is to say, the students who received the keyword method instruction had reached higher mean scores than the students who received the word-list method instruction. It means that the lower-intermediate students in the keyword method group, with the mean of 18.67 and standard deviation of the 0.479, had better performance than those in the word-list method instruction, with the mean of 15.07 and standard deviation of the 0.868.

Regardless of the proficiency level of the students, Table 1 indicates that the students in the keyword method group instruction, with the mean scores of 19.23 and standard deviation of the 0.722, had better performance than those in the word-list method group instruction, with the mean of 16.25 and standard deviation of the 1.422. It means that there is a difference between the mean scores and standard deviations of the students in the keyword method and word-list method group students.

In addition, the following results of the two-way ANOVA, which are summarized in Table 2, indicate that the observed mean differences are statistically significant.

TABLE 2.
THE RESULTS OF THE TWO-WAY ANOVA

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Corrected Model	370.292 ^a	3	123.431	3.066E2	.000	.888
Intercept	37772.008	1	37772.008	9.382E4	.000	.999
Proficiency	91.875	1	91.875	2.282E2	.000	.663
Methodology	267.008	1	267.008	6.632E2	.000	.851
Proficiency * Methodology	11.408	1	11.408	28.338	.000	.196
Error	46.700	116	.403			
Total	38189.000	120				
Corrected Total	416.992	119				

a. R Squared = .888 (Adjusted R Squared = .885)

As it is seen in this table, the significant value between the proficiency levels (upper and lower-intermediate) and two methods (the keyword and word-list method) is 0.00 which is less than 0.05 (0.00<0.05). It means that there is a statistically significant difference between the students in the keyword method and those in the word-list method group.

This shows that using the keyword method instruction for the upper-intermediate level students is superior to using the word-list method instruction. In addition, using the keyword method instruction for the lower-intermediate level students is superior to using the word-list method instruction.

V. DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

The results of this study showed that there is a significant difference between the performances of the keyword method group and the word-list method group across different proficiency levels.

In the upper-intermediate level group, the participants who received the keyword method instruction outperformed the participants who received the word-list method. In the case of the lower-intermediate level group, the participants in the keyword method group had better performance than those in the word-list method one.

In addition, irrespective of the proficiency level of the student, all of the students in the keyword method group had reached to the higher level of knowledge and scores than the students in the word-list method group. It can be concluded from this study that the keyword method instruction enhances ESP vocabulary learning. That is to say, the keyword method instruction has more effective influences on the knowledge of the ESP vocabularies of the students than the word-list method have. It means that the keyword method instruction as a vocabulary learning strategy enhances the ESP students' vocabulary learning.

The results of the study are in accordance with a number of previous studies (Amiryousefi & Ketabi, 2011; Atay & Ozbulgan, 2007; Atkinson & Rough, 1975; Baleghizadeh & Ashoori, 2010, Jenpattarakul, 2012; Tabatabaei & Hejazi, 2011) who believed in the superiority of the keyword method instruction to the word-lists method one in the learning of ESP vocabularies.

The results of this study are not in line with those of Atkinson and Rough (1975) who stated that the keyword method is most useful for the beginners. As the participants of this study were in the intermediate level and their average age was twenty-one, the application and usage of the keyword method instruction had a significant effect on the improvement of their ESP vocabularies. In turn, this study confirmed the results of Taguchi (2006) who found that the keyword method facilitate foreign language vocabulary learning of experienced and older learners.

As the context of this study was the ESP vocabularies and all of the related ESP vocabularies, in this study, were abstract, the results of this study are in accordance with those of the Rashidi and Sajjadi (2010) who stated that the keyword method facilitates learning of the abstract words. Moreover, the results are in line with those of Hauptmann (2004) who believed that the keyword method is good for learning both abstract and concrete words. However, it should not be ignored that in using the keyword for the ESP vocabularies that are abstract, the mental images should be concrete to have better effect.

As the keyword method can enhance the imagination and creativity of the ESP students and helps in connecting the mental image of a word into the meaning of that word, this process leads to meaningful learning and the degree of the rote learning can be decreased (Jenpattarakul, 2012). As the results show, it completely decreased the students' feeling of stress and they enjoyed the learning process. But making a mental image for some of the ESP words is difficult for the students and needs more time.

On the other hand, learning through word-list method needs more rehearsal and is more time consuming in comparison to the keyword method. In addition, the students stated that learning ESP vocabularies through the word-list method is boring because they needed to repeat a large amount of words without any association between the ESP words and their meanings. In spite of the time that students dedicate to the learning the ESP words through the word-list method, they may gain nothing because they forget most of the ESP words after a few days.

Amiryousefi and Ketabi (2011) believe that the keyword method improves vocabulary learning and this method is considered as a useful way for enhancing vocabulary learning and retention. Therefore, if the time of the class allow, it is better to incorporate the keyword method to the students' regular language learning schedule. In order to have better results, it is better to complement the keyword method with word-list method. As Amiryousefi and Ketabi (2011) stated memory techniques should not replace other approaches of vocabulary learning, but should complement them.

Learners prefer to work on the vocabulary-learning methods, which they can learn the ESP vocabularies fast and lead them to the best results. If the students would not be aware of all the methods and strategies of learning vocabularies, they may try the methods, which take them more time and do not have the students' desired outcome. Importantly, their motivation for learning ESP vocabularies will be decrease and in turn, they receive backfire results. In this regard, they should be aware of all the possible vocabulary-learning methods. Therefore, this study may have some insights for the students that the keyword method is not limited to one or two fields of study and is not intended for the special ages or proficiency levels.

In addition, teachers should consider all the determining factors of the students, such as age, proficiency level, the learning styles and preferences as well as the background knowledge of students, and review all the existed vocabulary-learning strategies and methods and continue to try the new vocabulary learning methods which are more fit to their students. It means that they should provide teaching conditions that students try the possible vocabulary-learning methods.

Since all the learners are different from each other and consequently their learning styles are different, teachers should encourage students to get behind the words and look for the mental images that the words carry to internalize the meaning of the words effectively rather than remember them for a short time.

With the help of the result of this study, syllabus designers can allocate more space in their course books to the mental images of the lexical items. They also can design special vocabulary course books to teach vocabulary to learners through mental images. Besides, the results of this study can have some insights for the researchers and help them to examine other dimensions of this research.

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Chinese-characterized Terms Translation on the Functional Equivalence Theory

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Abstract—Since the reform and opening-up policy, the whole world has witnessed China's setting-off. In addition to the economic boom, China also lays stress on strengthening her culture soft power in the outside world. Hence, an increasing number of words with Chinese characteristics have appeared. In regard to the translation of these Chinese-characterized words, lots of translators and scholars have put forward different translating methods. From the perspective of functional equivalence theory, in most cases, due to the differences of cultural background and linguistic customs between Chinese and English, it is impossible to reach total equivalence in form and meaning. On this occasion, the translator can choose a suitable approach to reach the functional equivalence. Through analyzing the translation of Chinese-characterized terms, the author tries to explain these useful methods from the perspective of functional equivalence.

Index Terms—Chinese-characterized terms, functional equivalence, translation

I. INTRODUCTION

With the economic and social development in recent years, China has attracted the world's attention. Also, Chinese people have realized the significance of improving a good image in the world through international exchanges. In the interaction with the outside world, many Chinese-characterized terms have emerged, especially in the governmental documents, news reports, leaders' speeches, etc. These terms, with vivid images, originate from the Chinese culture, having the concise and strong culture characteristics, but we can seldom find the equivalents in English, which makes it a hard nut to crack for translators.

In order to reach suitable translations, many translators and scholars have made great efforts in their researches, but few of them have tried to view the translation from the point of the equivalent principle. Thus the author of this paper tries to explain the rendering of the Chinese-characterized words and phrases from the principle.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

The term "equivalence" may refer to different concepts in different disciplines ranging from mathematics, logic, chemistry, computing to ethics, law, economy and art. In translation studies, equivalence is always a central issue which has caused heated controversy among many scholars. Equivalence is a basic and core concept existing since the beginning of translation and attracting the attention of all the translators and theorists. Equivalence can be considered as the relationship between the source text (ST) and the target text (TT), which is what translation activities seek for. The ideal translation should find complete equivalent in target-language (TL) to source-language (SL) in both content and form. (Nida, 2004) However, this ideal can hardly be achieved in reality because of numerous factors working upon translation such as great differences between two languages and cultures and the subjectivity of the source authors, the translators and the readers of target text. As Susan Bassnett puts it, equivalence in translation cannot be sought for as sameness, because even in the different versions in the same language sameness does not exist, let alone the translation. (Bassnett, 2002/2004). Studies on equivalence have been on the progress with the advance of translation studies in the West. In the early stage, scholars often explain and identify translation problems from a linguistic perspective. When it comes to text-linguistic approaches, equivalence is applied to smaller units of the text such as phonemes, morphemes and phrases. Later, some scholars started to deal with translation studies using functional-based and communicative approaches. In the later stage, people began to realize that translation cannot be only defined as SL to TL language transfer. The contexts within which translation happens should also be considered. Thus the translation study begins to turn to culture from under the umbrella of linguistics. So the translation equivalence is under heated discussion historically, socially and culturally. (Nida, 2004)

We can name a number of innovative theorists on the equivalence such as Jakobson, Nida, House, Catford, Wilss, Koller, Popovic, Bassett, Baker, etc.

Roman Jakobson, the famous linguist and the most influential translation theorist, belongs to the Prague School. His main contribution to translation studies is his notion of equivalence in difference. Based on his semiotic approach to language, Jakobson assigns the meaning of word to the sign, not the thing itself. He believes that any meaning of the linguistic sign is its future or alternative translation. (Jakobson, 2000). He tells three kinds of translation, namely, intralingual, interlingual and intersemiotic translation.

As a distinguished Egyptian scholar working in England, Mona Baker talked about equivalence at different levels: word, grammar, text and pragmatics. Baker believes that a good translator cannot be reached until he or she has read the text and got the gist of the overall message. (Baker, 2000) One thing worth mentioning is that when comparing Eastern and Western languages, Baker often takes Chinese as a typical example and analyzes it, which has instructive significance to English-Chinese translation studies.

Eugene A. Nida, a renowned American scholar in the fields of translation theory and linguistics, is a key figure in equivalence theory. Talking about equivalence, we cannot overlook Nida's Dynamic/Functional Equivalence which is his most notable contribution to translation theory. It provides a theoretical framework for this paper. In his great work, Nida distinguished two different types of equivalence-formal equivalence and dynamic equivalence. Later in 1990s, Nida improved his functional equivalence theory by adding differences of culture and linguistics. In his revised theory, there existed two levels of equivalence: the minimal and maximal equivalence. The former one referred to the audiences in the TL text should be able to understand it to the degree that they can imagine how the SL readers must have understood it (Nida, 1993), while the later one was defined as readers in the TL should be able to understand it in basically the same style as the SL audience did. (Nida, 1993) Equivalence theory was quite popular in China's translation circle when it was introduced into China. But some translators and scholars began to suspect the rationality of functional equivalence since the end of the 20th century. In other word, can functional equivalence really be reached? Many people believe some untranslatability cannot be overcome.

III. INTRODUCTION TO CHINESE-CHARACTERIZED TERMS

Words, as the basic of a language, usually convey the unique background and history of a given country. For example, in English people say something is "as white as snow", but for a person who has never seen snow once during his life, he would be get puzzled when hearing this idiom. For them, they may have the expression like "white as egret feathers". (Nida, 2004). Also, as China gets stronger and more powerful in the international arena, more people from other countries hear the news from China, and they usually find some words with Chinese characteristics confusing. But the translation of the Chinese-characterized words are not easy because to some extends, some words are newly created instead of translated due to lack of precedent (Hatim, 1997). To lift the mysterious veil of the Chinese-characterized words, the most important thing is its definition.

a. definition and characteristics of Chinese-characterized terms

The saying "with Chinese characteristics" was first mentioned by Deng Xiaoping in "establishing the socialism with Chinese characteristics" when China began the reform and opening-up. This saying has existed for over three decades, yet there is no concrete definition for it. Yet, through collecting and analyzing these words with Chinese characteristics, the author of the paper finds a way to understand these words. That is, they are words unique to Chinese culture and history, and can be regarded as a cultural mark of the time-honored history and the glorious civilization of China (Zhao, 2011). For instance, "the culture revolution", "people's commune", "the golden mean", "jiaozhi", "three represents", etc. And the all these words have several traits in common: they are characterized by their uniqueness or rarity and their rich implication of Chinese culture, moreover, most of them have no equivalents in English language or other languages.

b. different types of Chinese-characterized terms

All the words with Chinese characteristics can be classified into three categories, namely, Chinese-characterized words about culture and history, Chinese-characterized words about politics and economy, and Chinese-characterized words about daily life.

China is a country that boasts 5,000 years' history and fabulous culture. When we mention Chinese-characterized words about culture and history, they refer to the words that can be found nowhere but in the Chinese culture and history. For instance, "wen fang si bao" is translated as "The four treasure of the study", and they are further explained as "brush, ink stick, rice paper and ink stone". All these four things are indispensable for a man to write in ancient China, but in other countries, especially in the western countries, people do not know what they are. In addition, people would wonder about "rice paper". This kind of paper is made from parts of the rice plant, usually the stem, and is characterized by its delicate and lustrous quality and perfect ink absorption.

Take "hong men yan" as another example. It is rendered into "Hongmen banquet, a feast or meeting set up as a trap for the invited". And "qing ren yan li chu xi shi" is translated into "beauty is in the eye of a beholder". These two terms are related to historical figures in China's history and they are too numerous to mention one by one.

China's economy began to take off from the reform and opening-up, thus most of the political and economic words with Chinese characteristics are created in recent years. For example, tou fu zha gong cheng is translated into "a jerry-built project" which refers to buildings of bad quality. "Toufu" is a traditional food in China, which is soft and easy to break. So in Chinese people's daily life, when they talk about something delicate, they are inclined to describe it as easily-broken as toufu. However, for the foreigners out of China who know nothing about toufu they can still understand the expression "a jerry-built project". Other examples can be found as follows: the Great Leap Forward; the cultural revolution; Gang of four; four modernization; the shopping basket program; western development; etc. Since most of the Chinese-characterized words in the 18th national people's congress are about politics and economy, the author will elaborate on this type of Chinese-characterized terms in the following part.

If people talk about the words with Chinese characteristics relating to daily life, lots of this kind of words come to

their mind immediately. Among them, the first ones come to people's mind are the words about Chinese food. While dealing with the translation of Chinese food, translators at first mainly resorted to two methods, namely, transliteration and literal translation. But a strange name cannot help westerners to better understand these words. Later, translators modified the translation by explaining the ways the foods are made when necessary. See the following examples of the first type: *toufu*; *jiaozi*, or dumplings with vegetables and meat fillings; *kaoliang*; *shaomai*. And terms of the second type can be found as: eight treasure congee; hot-hot-hot; four-joy meatballs braised with brown sauce; Royal Feast of Complete Manchu-Han Courses; diced chicken with chili and peanuts in hot sauce, invented by Gongbao in Qing Dynasty; Buddha jump over the wall; etc.

In addition, there are more new words with Chinese characteristics that have appeared in recent years. China Daily has had a collection of these terms in *A Dictionary of New Chinese Phrases in English*, and several examples are listed as follows: young people relying on their parents; (of a girl) find a sugar daddy; smuggled goods; scalped ticket; essential quality-oriented education and so on.

IV. CASE STUDY---TRANSLATION OF THE CHINESE-CHARACTERIZED TERMS IN HU JINTAO'S REPORT ON THE 18TH NATIONAL PEOPLE'S CONGRESS

A. *Chinese-characterized Words in Hu's Report on the 18th National People's Congress*

Due to the nature of the political documents, most of the words with Chinese characteristics in the 18th national report are about politics and economy. To be further divided, these words can be classified in several groups:

Words referring to guiding ideology	Mao Zedong Thought, Deng Xiaoping Theory, three represents, the Scientific Outlook on Development, etc.
Words related to socialism system	socialist transformation, the basic system of socialism, the Party's basic line for the primary stage of socialism, a socialist market economy, core socialist values, the superiority and vitality of socialism, etc.
Words about economic construction	a moderately prosperous society, socialist modernization, only development counts, etc.
Words related to Taiwan	the two sides of the Taiwan Straits, links of mail services, transport and trade, Economic Cooperation Framework Agreement, the great renewal of the Chinese nation, the "one country, two system" principle, etc.
Words about politics	the system of people's congresses, the system of multiparty cooperation and political consultation under the leadership of the CPC, the system of regional ethnic autonomy, the system of community-level self-governance, democratic centralism, etc.
Other words	the decision of the Seventeenth Party Congress, the new-democratic revolution, the Four Cardinal Principles, issues relating to agriculture, rural areas and farmers, expand overseas presence, activities to learn from paragons of virtue such as Lei Feng, traditional Chinese medicine, the basic state policy of family planning, the three-step development strategy, etc.

B. *Two Points in Translation of Chinese-characterized Words from Functional Equivalence*

a. *Being Content-oriented*

The most important thing in translation is to keep the same content or meaning. Just as Nida and Taber described this point in their book: the translating process is composed of producing the natural equivalence both in meaning and style (Nida, 1993).

Chinese language has lots of styles, such as reduplication words and idioms composed by four Chinese characters, which are pleasant to the hearing, yet hard to be translated. When dealing with these terms, it is almost impossible for the translators to render them into English terms with rhythm as they used to be. But it does not matter if the purposes cannot be all reached. Above all, what counts is the meaning. See some words from Hu's report as follows: *yang chang bi duan* as play up strength and avoid weakness; *guo tai min an* as the country flourish and the people live in peace and harmony; *ji si guang yi* as draw on collective wisdom and absorb all useful ideas; *xun si wu bi* as bend the law for personal gain and engage in fraud; *kai tuo jin qu* as blaze new trails and forge ahead; *qiu tong cun yi* as seek common ground while shelving differences; *lian jie feng gong* as honestly perform one's official duties; etc.

All the Chinese terms above are composed of four Chinese characters, but the English version cannot be rendered into phrases at the same length. On this occasion, translators are supposed to keep in mind that content counts.

But from another aspect, these Chinese phrases have a trait in common: they can be parted from the middle, i.e. these expressions' meaning are the mixture of two shorter ones', say, "yang chang +bi duan" and "guo tai +min an". And it is obvious that the translation version also used "and" to indicate the connotation. From this point of view, the translators of the report have tried to be content-oriented and paid attention to the style as well.

Another instance is about the Chinese character "problem", which has occurred in the report for so many times.

Example 1. addressed the fundamental question of what kind of socialism and how we should build it

Example 2. China is faced with interwoven problems affecting its survival

Example 3. issues relating to agriculture, rural areas and farmers

Both of them are "problem", but the translation differs due to their varied meanings. And this surely proves the translation of Hu's report is content-oriented.

b. Being Receptor-oriented

Besides the meaning, another significant factor in Nida's functional equivalence theory is the reaction of the target readers. Nida believed in a successful translation, the readers of the receptor language should basically have the same response as the original readers. Because of cultural differences and few knowledge of Chinese society, the western readers do not comprehend some terms with Chinese characteristics. To achieve the corresponding reaction of the receptor readers, the translators need to do lots of work. "Three representatives" has been quite familiar to Chinese, but to foreigners, they are still obscure. Thus they are furthered explained as: Three represents (the Party must always represent the development trend of China's most advanced culture, and represent the fundamental interests of the overwhelming majority of the Chinese people). "92 common acknowledgment" is translated as "the 1992 Consensus, in which the two sides of the Taiwan Straits all agreed on the one-China principle". This term often appears in the reports about Taiwan issue, yet few Chinese people know its meaning, let alone the foreign readers. "learn from Leifeng" activities is translated as learn from paragons of virtue such as Lei Feng. By adding "paragons of virtue such as Lei Feng", translators can help the target reader better understand this special activity in China.

c. the achievement of functional equivalence in translation of Chinese-characterized words in Hu's report

The National People's Congress is of great importance to China and Chinese people, and Hu Jintao's report on it tells people who pay close attention to China what has happened in China recently. In this way, the translation of the Hu's report serves as the exchange and communication between China and the world. Under the guidance of functional equivalence theory, the translating version has indeed made people around the world have a better understanding of China.

To begin with, it is about the accuracy of the meaning. From the genre point of view, the report is a governmental document or statement, to convey its exact meaning is paramount. In Nida's point of view, a successful translation should be the closest and natural equivalent". And the translation of Hu's report clearly expresses the meaning of the source report. At the same time, the English version has taken the receptor readers' response into consideration. Moreover the culture differences have been paid attention to. Both the last two are achieved through necessary explanation.

d. the limitation of functional equivalence in translation of the Chinese-characterized terms

The question of untranslatability has already been a hot topic for a long time. In English translation of the Chinese-characterized terms, some people doubt whether this theory can reach satisfactory effects. In Catford's view, there are linguistic untranslatability and cultural untranslatability (Catford, 1965). The linguistic one refers to the linguistic features while the cultural one occurs due to the cultural gap. From this point of view, it is easier to understand the limitation of functional equivalence in the Chinese-characterized terms translation. After all, every theory has its defects as well as its advantages.

V. THREE MAJOR TRANSLATION METHODS

Chinese-specific terms have very deep cultural deposits, thus most of these words have underlying implications. And furthermore, Chinese and English differ in historical backgrounds, political conditions, social customs, thinking patterns and environmental surroundings, it is essential for translators to choose appropriate methods.

a. Literal Translation

Peter Newmark defined literal translation as: the SL grammatical constructions are changed to the closest TL equivalents but lexically, they are again translated (Newmark, 1988) That is to say, the precondition of literal translation is that there are almost equivalent expressions in the source language and target language. In this case, the translation fits the guidance of functional equivalence theory. Of course we can find some examples from Hu's report: socialism with Chinese characteristics, township and village enterprise, extensive economy, equality and mutual benefit, national welfare and the people's livelihood, etc. From these examples, it can be found that sometimes this kind of translation can even reach formal equivalence at the same time. But literal translation has its own disadvantage. Sometimes this method may mislead the translator and make the translation boring and that is what the translator should pay attention to. It is usually the case that the literal translation only helps name something, still it is unlikely for the target readers to understand its exact meaning and referent. On this occasion, translators often resort to annotation. That is, to attach more details to the literal translation. "three representatives" is a good example. Besides this, annotation is commonly used in explain some terms created by Chinese people or government. More can be seen in: three links, link of trade, travel and post; torch program, a plan to develop new and high technology; "eight honors and eight disgraces"; etc.

b. free translation

Free translation is always applied when it is difficult for translators to translate directly. In other words, in these cases, there are huge cultural gaps between the source language and the target language. As Nida mentioned, under this circumstance, if the translator still employs literal translation, the translated version may turn out to be obscure and hard to understand. (Nida, 1993) To some extent, free translation fits functional equivalence because it is hard to translate the form of the source language. And the author finds lots of free translation in Hu's report: the Party maintains close ties with the people; we must address ourselves to the problem of both material and spiritual civilization without any letup; development is the essential principle; the law of jungle; a younger, better-educated and more professional leadership; increasing revenue and saving on expenditures; etc.

The author also discovers that “zou chu qu” is translated as “expand oversea presence” in Hu’s report, but it was first translated into “going out” in the documents of the 16th national people’s congress. Later, our translators and scholars replaced this expression with “going global”. And now, China focuses more on creating her image of a great power and “zou chu qu” is rendered into “expand oversea presence”. Thus the evolution of the translation of “zou chu qu” also shows that free translation emphasizes on the meaning. Also, free translation can be combined with annotation if necessary.

c. transliteration

The translation methods mentioned above cover most of ordinary translation, but when faced with the words and phrases with Chinese Characteristics, transliteration is a necessity. Transliteration means the words and expressions from the source language are translated according to their pronunciation.

Just as some people prefer to say “dao” instead of “mei yuan”, people around the world say yuan, jiao, fen when they talk about Chinese money. And as China becomes more powerful, she also lays stress on strengthening its culture soft power. Chinese translators used to translate “jiao zi” into “dumplings with vegetable and meat fillings”, and they may directly translate it into “jiaozi” without any further explanation in the future because maybe some years later all people in the world will know China’s jiaozi. Yet, total transliteration without any explanation is not commonly-used. It is only used for the terms that have been included in English dictionaries like “Yin”, “Yang” and “fengshui”, etc (Zhao, 2011). And in most cases, translators should add further explanation. More examples can be seen in: kowtow, ama, ginseng, erhu, Chung-Yeung, Ching Ming, etc. These words are full of Chinese characteristics, and some even become current buzzword like Kongfu (Zhao, 2011).

VI. CONCLUSION

Chinese-specific words are heavily culturally loaded. This paper probes into the translation of the words and phrases with Chinese characteristics. The author has quoted lots of examples. Take the 18th National People’s Congress report English translation as classical example, the author has done research on the Chinese-characterized terms in Hu Jintao’s report as a case study. The equivalence theory is one of the most influential translating theories. Among them, Nida’s functional equivalence is what the author studies in this paper. From the development of functional equivalence, its contribution and disadvantage, the author shows a relatively detailed study on functional equivalence. And it has been found that Nida’s functional equivalence theory can be the guiding principle for the translation of Chinese-characterized words, though it has limitation.

In regard to the translation of Chinese-characterized terms, it is impossible to provide an absolute and universal standard. Because there are too many factors to consider, it is hard for a translator to choose perfect approaches when translating. This paper also discusses three major translating methods from the perspective of functional equivalence. And because of the discrepancies between the two languages, it is unlikely to achieve completely equivalence in the translation of Chinese-characterized term. What translators can do is to preserve the images and the meanings to achieve equivalence of Chinese as much as possible.

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An Investigation into Perfectionism as a Moderator of the Links between Language Learning Styles and Strategies

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Abstract—Individual Differences in language learning, a topic whose complexity has meant little conclusive knowledge and thus needs for continuing inquiry (Ehrman, Leaver & Oxford, 2003), was addressed in this study. Language learning perfectionism was investigated as an important and complicated educational construct related to important antecedents and consequences such as language learning styles and strategies. To promote successful language learning, the modifying roles of perfectionism in the relationship between language learning styles and strategies were emphasized. The study presented two kinds of data: quantitative and qualitative. In the quantitative study, the participants consisted of 265 EFL second-year undergraduates. Three self-reported inventories, the Persian version of Learning Style Questionnaire (E&L LSQ) (Ehrman & Leaver, 2002); the Persian version of the Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL) (Oxford, 1990); and the Persian version of Positive and Negative Perfectionism Scale (PANPS) (Terry-Short, Owens, Slade & Dewey, 1995), were used. In the qualitative aspect of the study, semi-structured interviews have been performed among 34 high and low achievers. The analyses indicated that positive perfectionism was more relevant factor attributing students' use of language learning strategies than styles. High achievers exhibited more positive perfectionism and absence of negative perfectionism, whereas low achievers exhibited signs of both positive and negative perfectionism. The pedagogical implications of the study were discussed.

Index Terms—positive perfectionism, negative perfectionism, synoptic style, ectenic style, language learning strategies

I. INTRODUCTION

The study of language learner characteristics or Individual Differences (IDs) and the degree to which they determine both the process and the product of foreign/ second language acquisition has been the object of interest in the field (Dornyei, 2005; Ehrman, 1996; Ellis, 2008; O'Malley & Chamot, 1990; Oxford, 1990; Dornyei & Skehan, 2003). Dornyei (2005) in his seminal book on the subject considers personality, motivation, language learning styles and strategies as the important learner characteristics.

To distinguish styles and strategies, Reid (1995) provides a standard definition for learning styles as: "an individual's natural, habitual, and preferred way(s) of absorbing, processing, and retaining new information and skills" (p. 121). Keefe (1979) also defines learning styles as "cognitive, affective and physiological behaviors that serve as relatively stable indicators of how learners perceive, interact with and respond to the learning environment" (p. 197). Cohen (1998), on the other hand, defines strategies as "learning processes which are consciously selected by the learner" (p. 162). Oxford (1999) offers a comprehensive and currently the best definition of language learning strategies as: "Specific actions, behaviors, steps, or techniques that students use to improve their own progress in developing skills in a second or foreign language" (p.163). To clarify the distinction between the two concepts, Sternberg and Grigorenko (2001) maintain, while styles work without individual awareness, strategies demand a conscious choice of alternatives.

However, this study seeks to extend the boundaries of individual differences discussed in foreign language learning and includes another important learner variable -most notably another personality trait- that is not normally discussed in the context of foreign language learning, namely perfectionism. The reason is that, in language courses in Iranian universities we can see students who fear making mistakes and focus on 10% of incorrect responses on an exam after receiving a grade of 90%. These kinds of perfectionist students set excessively high standards and rigid rules for themselves, think in all-or-nothing pattern, satisfy hardly only if doing tasks without any margin of flaw, compare themselves with other students, evaluate themselves harshly, check excessively to ensure that everything is right, and procrastinate or delay activities to the last minutes (Burns, 1980; Hollender, 1978). In contrast, there are also students who set realistically high standards and flexible rules for themselves, aim to achieve their goals at the best of their ability, retain the ability to satisfy their performance, and tend to believe that success may occur at any moment (Hamachek, 1978; Slade & Owens, 1998).

An abundance of research studies on perfectionism most notably point toward its negative correlates. For instance, it was found that perfectionism positively correlates with depression (Flett, Besser, Hewitt & Davis, 2007), neuroticism (Sumi & Kanda, 2002) and personality disorders (Sassaroli et al., 2008) among other maladaptive and undesirable characteristics.

In L2 studies, Gregersen and Horwitz (2002) found the connection of 'anxiety specific to foreign language learning' with 'perfectionism'. They maintained that perfectionism can affect detrimentally language performance by increasing the anxiety associated with setting unrealistically high standards of performance, and fearing negative evaluations by others.

Recent conceptualizations of perfectionism, however, have involved dividing the construct into positive and negative components (Terry-Short, Owens, Slade & Dewey, 1995). This implies that one form of perfectionism is robustly positive, normal and adaptable. According to Terry-Short et al. (1995) positive perfectionism involves "realistic and reasonable self expectations which accounted both for limitations and for strengths, with strivings accompanied by a sense of satisfaction and enhanced self-esteem" (p. 663). However, negative perfectionism involves "setting of unrealistically high targets, driven by a fear of failure, thought to originate in early environments of inconsistency and conditional positive approval" (Terry-Short, et al., p. 663).

In L2 studies, Swain and Burnaby (1976) examining personality traits important for success in French immersion programs, identified parents considered four loading factors: happiness, cheerfulness, talkativeness, and having a tendency toward perfectionism (positive aspect) – however, only the last one, adaptive perfectionist tendencies, correlated significantly with L2 performance.

Given the importance of language learning styles, strategies, and perfectionism in the process of foreign language learning, this study seeks to find about the modifying roles of different types of perfectionism in the relation between styles and strategies. It tries to make aware both students and teachers to think more about what positive and negative perfectionism can do with students, how to manage students' perfectionism and help them overcome difficulties by applying appropriate strategies. The study also aims to make teachers more cognizant regarding the role of themselves in students' adoption of negative and positive dimensions of perfectionism in English language classes.

Accordingly, an attempt was made to find an empirically justified answer to each of the following questions:

1. Do perfectionism patterns make significant differences in students' use of language learning strategies?
2. Does positive perfectionism significantly modify the relationship between language learning styles and strategies?
3. Does negative perfectionism significantly modify the relationship between language learning styles and strategies?
4. What are the qualitative differences in language learning perfectionism between high achievers and low achievers?

To remain conservative, the researcher estimated null hypotheses for questions one to three. Question four is descriptive and does not pose any relation or interaction among variables. Hence, no hypothesis was stated for it.

II. METHODOLOGY

This study is a descriptive, mixed method study, having both quantitative phase and then follow-up qualitative semi-structured interview phase. That is, the qualitative phase of the study was run to get greater insight about the differences of language learning perfectionism among high and low achievers. In the present study, styles were taken to be the independent variables and strategies were considered as dependent variables. Positive and negative perfectionism in learning language were taken as moderator variables, which is a special type of independent variable. That is, they have been selected as moderators to investigate whether they modify the relationship between the dependent and independent variables. To determine the significance of the statistical results of the study, the standard level of $p \leq .05$ was considered.

A. Participants

A total of 265 EFL undergraduate Iranian university students studying General English as part of English for academic purposes in medical curriculum at Tehran University of Medical Sciences participated in this study. Students were randomly selected from medical fields of: speech therapy, audiometry, optometry, technical orthopedics, physiotherapy, occupational therapy, radiotherapy, surgical technology and laboratory science. They were sophomores and already passed two prerequisites English courses to be prepared for general and then academic English. The participants included 190 female and 75 male students, ranging in age from 18 to 25 ($M=19.5$, $SD=.92$). The group was not controlled for gender, age, or any other variables except the variables of the study.

Moreover, for the qualitative phase of the study, 34 sub-sample students were selected based on stratified sampling for in-depth study; branching questionnaires respondents into two groups of high achievers ($n=17$) and low achievers ($n=17$). Students' reported scores on the objective questions of the final English test in the second semester of their first academic year were used as the indices of the students' language learning outcomes and the basis for their division in this study. The test items consisted of listening comprehension, reading comprehension, cloze and vocabulary, administered by English Center of Tehran University of Medical Sciences. The reliabilities of the final test scores ranged from .84 to .90. In this study, those with the final score of 17-20 (out of 20) were considered as high achievers and those with the final score of 10-13 (out of 20) were considered as low achievers.

B. Instrumentation

Three paper-and-pencil instruments were used for the quantitative phase of the study as follow.

- *Ehrman and Leaver Learning Style Questionnaire (E&L LSQ)*

It was developed by Ehrman and Leaver (2002). It contains 30 items using a 9- point semantic differential scale format and provides a rich set of data about an individual language learning styles which has the advantage of generality and specificity. This complex battery has an elaborate underlying theoretical construct and has undergone extensive field-testing and validation at the Foreign Service Institute. The instrument reorganizes a number of established style dimensions under a new, comprehensive construct with the two poles labeled *Synopsis* and *Ectasis*. The main difference between the two extremes is that a *Synoptic* learner allows more preconscious or unconscious processing whereas an *Ectenic* learner demands conscious control over the learning process. While synoptics tend to play their way through language learning, feel relaxed, and take risks, ectenics tend to be meticulous about language learning, dislike ambiguity, and safeguard themselves by avoiding tentative steps. The complete system is made up of 10 subdimensions as follow:

1: Field sensitivity_ field insensitivity, 2: Field independence_ field dependence, 3: Leveling-sharpening, 4: Global-particular, 5: Impulsive-reflective, 6: Synthetic-analytic, 7: Analogue-digital, 8: Concrete-abstract, 9: Random-sequential, 10: Inductive-deductive.

This study, however, applied the general aspects of E&L LSQ, namely Synoptic and Ectenic language learning style indices as predictors of achievement in the use of language learning strategies among university students. While, Synoptic pole included the first one of each opposing pair, ectenic pole included the second part of each pair. In this study, Cronbach alphas of .91 and .92 were found for synoptic and ectenic styles respectively.

- *Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL)*

It was developed by Oxford (1990). It contains a 50-item four-Point Likert-Scale ranging from 'never' to 'always' used to assess a broad range of L2 learning strategies. It measures the frequency with which a student uses memory, cognitive, compensation (under direct class), metacognitive, affective and social language learning strategies (under indirect class). The SILL is the best-known strategy scale and is utilized widely for its high reliability and validity. The internal consistency of SILL ranges from .89 to .98 in various studies (Oxford & Burry-Stock, 1995). In this study Cronbach alpha found to be .93 for the Persian version of SILL.

- *Positive and Negative Perfectionism Scale (PANPS)*

It was developed by Terry-Short, Owens, Slade and Dewey (1995). It is a 40-item self-report inventory to assess the levels of Positive and Negative Perfectionism _two constructs that distinguish between _normal_ and _neurotic_ perfectionism. It is a five-point Likert type scale with anchors of strongly disagree, disagree, don't know, agree, and strongly agree. Scores for Positive Perfectionism (PP) and Negative Perfectionism (NP), each with 20 questions, can range from 20 to 100, with higher values indicating greater positive and negative perfectionism, respectively. Terry-Short et al. (1995) reported evidence for construct validity of the scale, demonstrating that PANPS scores identified 86% of the eating disordered group.

In this study, based on Terry-Short et al. (1995) Positive and Negative Perfectionism Scale, a new Persian scale measuring these specific variables in language learning context was adapted. Cronbach alphas of .83 and .84 were obtained for positive and negative perfectionism in language learning respectively.

C. *Qualitative Interview Part of the Study*

Beside quantitative phase of the study, in qualitative part of the study, semi-structured interviews were performed branching questionnaires respondents into two groups of high achievers and low achievers. The interview dealt with the students' sense of perfectionism, whether they are completing their assignments to the end, and which pattern of perfectionism they are expressing. Sample questions are "does it suffice to study almost some materials or you need to learn it completely to the end?"; "Do you feel forced to reread what you read or you are comfortable reading it once? Please explain your experience."

D. *Procedure*

The coded batteries of the questionnaires were administered to 265 participants. Detailed instructions were given by the researcher on how to respond to the batteries. The purpose of the questionnaires and the potential significance of the results were communicated to the students. Further, the participants were guaranteed anonymity of their responses. It, actually, contributed to the honesty of respondents' answers. However, they were asked to keep the written code on the first page of the batteries of questionnaires for the follow up interview. Completing the coded packet of instruments typically required 45-50 minutes.

With consultation with experts in psychology and applied linguistics a careful planning of interview questions were made followed by some piloting, to ensure that the questions elicit sufficiently rich data and run smoothly. Again, in the process of the interview which took about 15 minutes for each student, the interviewees were told that the interviews would be highly confidential and used for research only. The interviews were audio taped and notes were taken on them for further analyses.

III. RESULTS

Normality of the data was checked by using Kolmogorov-Smirnov Test, run for the SILL, E&L LSQ, and PANPS as presented in Table 1.

TABLE I.
MEANS, STANDARD DEVIATIONS AND KOLMOGOROV-SMIRNOV INDICES FOR THE SUBSCALES OF
SILL, E&L LSQ, AND PANPS FOR THE TOTAL SAMPLE (N= 265)

Measure	M	SD	Kolmogorov-Smirnov Z	Sig. (2-tailed)
SILL				
Memory	2.47	.50	.96	.31
Cognitive	2.42	.47	.89	.39
Compensation	2.31	.55	1.50	.06
Metacognitive	2.79	.58	1.31	.06
Affective	2.07	.46	1.62	.06
Social	2.22	.64	1.61	.06
E&L LSQ				
Synoptic	3.76	.64	1.03	.23
Ectenic	3.47	.67	1.29	.70
PANPS				
Positive Perfectionism	3.95	.48	1.14	.14
Negative Perfectionism	2.96	.54	.90	.38

Kolmogorov-Smirnov Test for the subscales of all three questionnaires indicated the sample of the study was distributed normally and was not found to be different from the population. Hence, parametric statistics were legitimately applied.

Concerning the descriptive statistics of the SILL, the mean of the individual strategy items ranged from 2.07 (for affective) to 2.79 (for metacognitive), with an overall mean of 2.42, indicating low (mean values between 1 and 2.4) strategy usage overall. As Phillips (1991) maintains, beginning L2 learners might possess little in declarative knowledge regarding their second language learning, and much less procedural knowledge about how to effectively apply learning strategies. Metacognitive strategies found to be the mostly applied ones (M = 2.79) used by 52.5% of students with medium frequency. Among the other strategy categories, memory and cognitive strategies were also applied approximately in medium range, while compensation and social strategies were employed in low range, and affective strategies found to be the least used.

For the E&L LSQ, the interplay of 10 bipolar dimensions of the scale made it possible for an individual to have both synoptic and ectenic tendencies, expressing more inclination toward one of them or adopting one as the dominant style. Thus, mean scores of both styles were calculated for the individuals in the sample. The participants reported higher preference for synoptic language learning style (M = 3.76), indicating more interest toward subconscious processing or contextual learning of the language.

PANPS results generally indicated mean of 3.95 for positive perfectionism, which considered high (mean values between 3 and 5) and mean of 2.96 for negative perfectionism, which considered low (mean values between 1 and 3) among the students. Generally speaking, it could be considered a favorable sign, however, it would be analyzed in details while answering research question one of the study.

A. Answer to Research Question One

To answer the first research question of the study multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) was utilized to examine the differences among language learning strategies employed by learners with different patterns of language learning perfectionism. To specify different patterns of perfectionism, using a cutoff of mean score 3 (M = 3), students were allocated to four groups according to their response to PANPS: High Positive/High Negative (HP/HN), Low Positive/High Negative (LP/HN), High Positive/Low Negative (HP/LN), and Low Positive/Low Negative (LP/LN) perfectionism. Fig. 1 illustrates group classification of language learning perfectionism pattern.

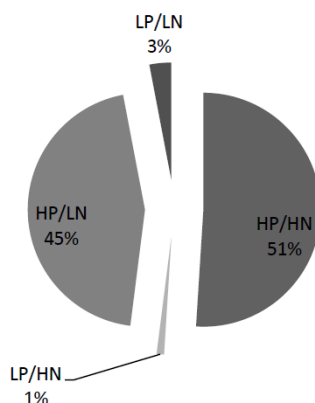


Figure 1: Percentage of students in the four groups of language learning perfectionism

The findings of this study provided support for the presence of two major perfectionists groups in Iranian university students: HP/LN (adaptive) and HP/HN (maladaptive). The highest percentage of students had HP/HN pattern (51%). In Terry-Short's et al. (1995) study, people with eating disorder had somehow this pattern of perfectionism. These were the ones who needed support to lower their negative aspect of perfectionism. They were prone to obsession-compulsion, procrastination and excessive expectation from themselves. In the present study, 45% had HP but LN (adaptive) perfectionism. These were considered the happiest ones, mostly found among successful, athlete people in Terry-Short's et al. study. The lowest percentage in this study was for LP/HN (extreme case). These were found among depressed individuals in Terry-Short's et al. study, demanding clinical support. Non-perfectionists (LP/LN) or normal in Terry-Short's et al. account just made 3% of the sample population in this study.

Table 2 presents numbers of students with different language perfectionism patterns, and the mean strategy use of the groups. The highest mean of strategies use found for HP/HN and HP/LN with different orchestrations.

TABLE II.
NUMBER OF STUDENTS IN EACH GROUP OF LANGUAGE PERFECTIONISM PATTERN AND THEIR PERFORMANCE ON SILL

Language Perfectionism	N	Dependent Strategies of SILL											
		Memory		Cognitive		Compensation		Metacognitive		Affective		Social	
Pattern		M	SD	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD
HP/HN	136	2.49	.51	2.37	.47	2.22	.54	2.74	.60	2.09	.47	2.19	.67
LP/HN	2	2.27	.39	1.78	.30	1.67	.70	2.28	.70	2.17	.00	1.16	.56
HP/LN	119	2.48	.50	2.53	.44	2.44	.54	2.90	.53	2.07	.45	2.33	.56
LP/LN	8	2.08	.32	1.92	.33	2.02	.42	2.19	.47	1.58	.30	1.36	.26

Since the numbers of students in the four groups of language perfectionism patterns were not approximately equal, Box's Test was run to check the assumption of homogeneity of covariances of the six dependent strategies across the four perfectionism groups. Box's test found not to be significant ($p = .56$). Then, the assumption of equality of covariance matrices was not violated. To check for the equality of error variances across the six strategy groups Levene's test was also checked. However, except for social strategies ($p = .01$) all the other variances found not to be significant. Given that the Box test was not significant and this was the only Levene test that was significant, the researcher was opting to conduct the analysis, but to use corrected follow-up test. In the corrected model, social strategies were found to be significantly differentiated among groups ($F(3, 261) = 7.09, p = .000$). Test of between-subjects effect that is analogous to perform four separate univariate one-way ANOVAs indicated significant Eta of .86 for social strategies which is considered great effect size. Dannett 3, a test for checking variables in which the assumption of homogeneity of variances was violated, also found to be significant for social, indicating significant differences in social strategies between each of HP/LN and HP/HN with LP/LN. In other words LP/LN significantly used this strategy lower than the other two prevalent groups. Further, HP/LN and HP/HN displayed no significant difference with each other for this strategy.

Then, a multivariate analysis of variance was conducted to examine whether the four language perfectionism patterns differed on a linear combination of the dependent variables of language learning strategies. A significant difference was found, Wilk's Lambda = .84, $F(256, 724) = 2.56, p = .000$, multivariate $\eta^2 = .05$ with medium effect size of .22. Examination of the coefficients for the linear combinations distinguishing language perfectionism groups indicated that all six language strategies except memory contributed most to distinguishing the groups. HP/LN and HP/HN found to use memory significantly as high as each other. The roles of LP/HN and LP/LN groups of language perfectionism were not significant in the MANOVA analyses. Results of the parameter estimates of how the dependent variables of language strategies were weighted in the equation that maximally distinguished HP/HN (maladaptive) and HP/LN (adaptive) groups of language perfectionism patterns were synthesized into Table 3 in which values of Beta weights were demonstrated.

TABLE III.
DETAILS OF CONTRIBUTION OF LANGUAGE LEARNING STRATEGIES IN DISCRIMINATING HP/HN AND HP/LN GROUPS OF LANGUAGE LEARNING PERFECTIONISM

Language Perfectionism	N	Dependent Language Learning Strategies					
		Memory	Cognitive	Compensation	Metacognitive	Affective	Social
HP/HN	136	.40*	.45**	.20	.55**	.51**	.83***
HP/LN	119	.40*	.62***	.42*	.70***	.49**	.93***

* $p \leq .05$, ** $p \leq .01$, *** $p \leq .001$

HP/LN group had the highest Beta weights for all strategies (except having equal weight in memory with HP/HN and lower weight in use of affective than that of HP/HN), discriminating this group from the other groups of perfectionism pattern. High positivity and low negativity of perfectionism allied this group of students to the full advantage of applying language strategies in their process of English learning.

Besides, HP/HN had also significant etas for just five strategy category (except compensation strategies), discriminating this group from the adaptive group of perfectionism pattern. Their high negative perfectionism could have blocked them to apply compensation Strategies. That is, they were not fortunate enough to overcome their limitations in speaking by circumlocution, or letting themselves to guess through compensation strategies.

B. Answer to Research Question Two

To answer the second research question of the study, multiple regression was utilized to examine the modifying role of positive perfectionism in the association between language learning styles and strategies. To avoid multicollinearity between synoptic and ectenic language learning styles, separate regression analyses were utilized for the combination of each of synoptic and ectenic styles (independent variables) with the positive perfectionism. On the other hand, each of the six subscale scores from the SILL served as one criterion variable per regression analysis.

Table 4 presents results for multiple regression of synoptic and positive perfectionism for predicting SILL strategies.

TABLE IV.
MULTIPLE REGRESSION OF SILL SUBSCALES ON SYNOPTIC AND POSITIVE PERFECTIONISM PREDICTORS (N = 265)

Criterion Dependent Variables	R	Adjusted R ²	F (2,262)	Significant Predictor	SEB	β
Memory	.38	.14	22.67***	PP	.06	.35***
Cognitive	.44	.19	32.27***	PP	.05	.43***
Compensation	.35	.09	15.49***	PP	.06	.32***
Metacognitive	.54	.28	53.96***	PP	.06	.52***
Affective	.39	.15	24.40***	PP	.05	.39***
Social	.41	.16	26.80***	PP	.07	.39***

*p≤ .05, **p≤ .01, ***p≤ .001
PP = Positive Perfectionism

The results yielded six equations that were statistically significant. As indicated in Table 4, about 14% of the total variance in memory, 19% in cognitive, 9% in compensation, 28% in metacognitive, 15% in affective, and approximately 16% in the social strategy category was accounted for by the predictor variables. The observed regression coefficients F also indicated that the combination of synoptic and positive perfectionism significantly predicted the dependent strategy variables. However, the Standardized Beta Coefficients found to be significant only for positive perfectionism, meaning that only positive perfectionism significantly added anything to the prediction of final analysis. The highest weight of predicting strategies by positive perfectionism was found for metacognitive (β = .52) (large effect size), then cognitive (β = .43), affective and social (β = .39), memory (β = .35), and the least but still significant was for compensation strategies (β = .32), ranged in large to medium effect sizes. The more the student benefited from positive perfectionism, the more s/he applied language learning strategies, specially, metacognitive strategies.

To investigate the association of ectenic and positive perfectionism for predicting SILL strategies, multiple regression was also conducted by entering both predictors simultaneously. The results are summarized in Table 5.

TABLE V.
MULTIPLE REGRESSION OF SILL SUBSCALES ON ECTENIC AND POSITIVE PERFECTIONISM PREDICTORS (N = 265)

Criterion Dependent Variables	R	Adjusted R ²	F (2,262)	Significant Predictor(s)	SEB	β
Memory	.38	.14	23.31***	PP	.06	.36***
				ES	.04	.12*
Cognitive	.44	.19	32.45***	PP	.05	.44***
Compensation	.34	.11	17.86***	PP	.06	.33***
				ES	.04	-.12*
Metacognitive	.53	.28	53.32***	PP	.06	.52***
Affective	.39	.15	24.44***	PP	.05	.39***
Social	.40	.15	25.93***	PP	.07	.40***

*p≤ .05, **p≤ .01, ***p≤ .001
PP = Positive Perfectionism; ES = Ectenic Style

This time, again the results of the multiple regression analyses yielded six equations that were statistically significant. However, there found to be some changes comparing with that of synoptic and positive perfectionism (Table 4). The adjusted R square found to be approximately the same as the previous equations. However, the Standardized Beta Coefficients found to be significant not only for positive perfectionism but also for ectenic style in predicting memory and compensation strategies, but Betas for ectenic comparing to that of positive perfectionism had lower weights for these strategies (.12 and -.12 respectively). Here, the co-appearance of ectenic style with positive perfectionism in predicting memory and compensation strategies uncovered the fact that ectenic could not correlate as much as synoptic with this aspect of perfectionism, then appeared as significant predictor, however, with lesser weight and even negative weight in the final analysis. The interesting point was that ectenic negatively predicted compensation strategies. The higher the student possessed ectenic style, the lower s/he made use of compensation strategies. For other strategies it was still only positive perfectionism that significantly added anything to the prediction of final analysis. The rank order of beta weights for positive perfectionism predicting strategies found to be the same as the previous model. To reiterate, the more the student benefited from positive perfectionism, the more s/he applied language learning strategies.

C. Answer to Research Question Three

To answer the third research question of the study, like previous question, multiple regression was utilized to examine the modifying role of negative perfectionism in the association between language learning styles and strategies. Likewise, separate multiple regression analyses were utilized for the combination of each of synoptic and ectenic styles with the negative perfectionism for prediction of the six language learning strategies.

Table 6 presents the results for multiple regression of synoptic and negative perfectionism for predicting SILL strategies.

TABLE VI.
MULTIPLE REGRESSION OF SILL SUBSCALES ON SYNOPTIC AND NEGATIVE PERFECTIONISM PREDICTORS (N = 265)

Criterion Dependent Variables	R	Adjusted R ²	F (2,262) Predictor	Significant	SEB	β
Memory	.17	.02	4.30*	SS	.04	.14*
Cognitive	.14	.01	2.90	—	—	—
Compensation	.18	.02	4.70**	NP	.06	-.18**
Metacognitive	.16	.01	3.58*	SS	.05	.15**
Affective	.13	.00	2.26	—	—	—
Social	.12	.00	1.94	—	—	—

*p≤ .05, **p≤ .01
NP = Negative Perfectionism; SS = Synoptic Style

The results of the multiple regression analyses yielded just three statistically significant equations. As indicated in Table 6, just 2% of the total variance in memory, 1% in cognitive, 2% in compensation, 1% in metacognitive, and approximately nothing in affective and social strategy categories were accounted for by the predictor variables. The observed regression coefficients F indicated that the combination of synoptic and negative perfectionism significantly predicted just memory, compensation and metacognitive strategies. For predicting both memory and metacognitive strategies the Beta Coefficient found to be significant only for synoptic style, meaning that it was just synoptic style that significantly added anything to the prediction of these strategies. On the other hand, the Standardized Beta Coefficients in predicting compensation strategies found to be significant only for negative perfectionism, meaning that only negative perfectionism significantly added anything to the prediction of compensation strategies. However, the variance in compensation strategies negatively accounted by negative perfectionism or negativity in perfectionism made one use less compensation strategies. In all, in contrast to positive perfectionism that along with synoptic style significantly predicted application of all six strategies, negative perfectionism just displayed itself along with synoptic style, in just one negatively significant prediction (that of compensation strategies). As a result, negative perfectionism did not help at all in strategy use.

Further, to investigate the association of ectenic and negative perfectionism for predicting SILL strategies, multiple regression was also conducted by entering both predictors simultaneously. The results are summarized in Table 7.

TABLE VII.
MULTIPLE REGRESSION OF SILL SUBSCALES ON ECTENIC AND NEGATIVE PERFECTIONISM PREDICTORS (N = 265)

Criterion Dependent Variables	R	Adjusted R ²	F (2,262)	Significant Predictor	SEB	β
Memory	.17	.02	3.98*	ES	.04	.13*
Cognitive	.10	.00	1.52	—	—	—
Compensation	.18	.02	4.86**	NP	.06	-.16**
Metacognitive	.13	.01	2.43*	ES	.06	.13*
Affective	.12	.00	1.92	—	.05	—
Social	.06	-.00	.51	—	.07	—

*p≤ .05, **p≤ .01
NP = Negative Perfectionism; ES = Ectenic Style

The results of the multiple regression analyses like those of the previous analyses for synoptic style yielded just three statistically significant equations. However, again, it was the significant role of the style (this time, ectenic) for predicting both memory and metacognitive strategies that beta found to be significant. But, here, the beta weights (β = .13 for both strategies) found to be lower than those with synoptic styles, meaning that ectenic like synoptic had determining role in adopting both memory and metacognitive strategies but when co-occurring with negative perfectionism with lesser weight than that of synoptic style. Once more the Standardized Beta Coefficients in predicting compensation strategies found to be negatively significant only for negative perfectionism, meaning that negative perfectionism significantly added anything to the prediction of compensation strategies (β = -.16, this time with lower weight than the previous analysis with synoptic style, β = -.18). Altogether, in contrast to positive perfectionism that significantly predicted application of all six strategies, negative perfectionism just significantly predicted compensation strategies with negative loading.

As a result, self criticism that was associated with negative perfectionism at the best did not contribute to the use of strategies and at the worst came with serious costs in down changing strategy use. Clearly, in learning foreign language it would be desirable to have higher levels of positive perfectionism and lower levels of negative perfectionism. The core of the problem was that when a person's self worth depended on reaching excessively high standards, it was an

inevitable script for self defeat and repeated failure, as the lower use of strategies end with lower achievement in language learning.

D. Qualitative Differences in Language Learning Perfectionism between High Achievers and Low Achievers

To answer the fourth research question of the study the interview data were analyzed according to comments related to positive and negative perfectionism.

94% of high achievers reported they opted to read their assignments completely to the end rather than reading some materials, indicating their interest to do the tasks positively and completely rather than haphazardly. However, only 57% of low achievers reported their interest in completing their assignments.

While 58% of high achievers did not feel forced to go over a work assignment many times, the same numbers of students among low achievers expressed they felt forced to check their assignment excessively, indicating the negative aspect of perfectionism.

In the meantime, in response to the question: "are you glad to make efforts in learning language or you are concerned most of the time?" 94% of high achievers found to be highly positive perfectionists with approximately no degree of negative perfectionism, whereas 57% of low achievers found to have positive perfectionism and 42% had negative perfectionism.

The interview results of the perfectionism type of the high and low achievers were compatible with their quantitative statistics in which all the high achievers were HP/LN or adaptive perfectionists, while among low achievers there found to be two mixed groups of HP/HN =maladaptive (52%) and HP/LN= adaptive (47%) perfectionism. Further, the ratio of positive perfectionism to negative perfectionism was more for high achievers (2) than that of low achievers (1.26). Fortunately, for low achievers also the ratio of positive to negative perfectionism was more than the ratio of negative to positive. High negative perfectionism of 52% of low achievers (with HP/HN perfectionism), clearly, could be a major obstacle for their success in learning language. However, the other 47% with HP/LN among low achiever could represent those who did not try hard due to low interest and obligatory English course as expressed in the interview. Then, while the major pattern of perfectionism among high achievers found to be HP/LN (adaptive), it was HP/HN (maladaptive) for low achievers. Moreover, qualitatively speaking, high achievers were positive perfectionists since they felt deep personal satisfaction in learning language, while low achievers' positive perfectionism was fueled by the 'need' and 'obligation' behind learning language. It could be corroborated by the interview comments of members of these two groups as a high achiever mentioned: "when I feel tired, I study English to feel relaxed" and two other high achievers expressed their interest not just in learning English but also in learning other languages such as German, Spanish and Indian. On the other hand, a low achiever reported: "I dislike language, because other students outperformed me!". Participants from this group accounted for their negative perfectionism in learning language as fear of exam and the difficulty of the English conversation in the classroom: "I know that someday, I would be a disaster in learning language".

All the high achievers expressed their interest for being an absolutely excellent speaker of English. In the meantime, low achievers were also interested in speaking English excellently, but there were signs of despair in their accounts: "I do my best, but if I fail, I get depressed"; "I'd like to be the best in speaking English, but I fear and don't know how".

Further, all the high achievers, stated their great interest in comprehending English completely. The story was the same for low achievers, but again with some vein of discouragement: "only when I know how to do it well". Therefore, their negative perfectionism accompanying their ignorance of their language learning styles and strategies could have hindered their achievement.

Interestingly, 82% of high achievers in response to the question of "how do you feel, if you could not speak English faultlessly in the classroom?" reported they still feel relaxed, confident, hopeful and proud since "it's my right"; "I let myself to make mistake to learn language". But, 71% of low achieves identified feeling of inferiority, hate, fear, weakness, worry, dumbness, stupidity and lack of self confidence, "I feel nervous when speaking English", "I feel bad in my mind, I wonder why I can't speak English very well".

88% of high achievers in response to the question of "how do you feel, if you could not understand all the points in the classroom?" stated they were letting themselves to guess; they would not lose their hope and ask their doubt from the teacher or other friends to make it clear. On the other hand, 71% of low achievers expressed their negative feeling in this regard, maintaining: "I get nery"; "it's the worst experience in my life!"; "I feel I waste my time", "I feel I'm a poor learner".

Finally, students in both groups were asked to record the grade they received on actual exam in their last semester. The mean grade reported by the high achievers for the actual exam was 18.5 out of 20. However, this grade for low achieves was 11.46 out of 20. Further, students in both groups were also asked to predict or to self-rate the grade they conceive they would receive for their final exam in the present semester. The mean self-rated grade reported by the high achievers found to be 19.29. However, that of low achieves found to be 17.14. This suggested that evidently, although the mean self-rated scores were higher for both groups, due to their positive perfectionism, the mean self rated score of low achievers found to be unexpectedly high, due to their negative perfectionism through which they set unattainably high standards for themselves. Subtracting the mean self-rated marks from the last semester actual mean marks for each group shed light on the issue (.79 for high achievers, and 5.68 for low achievers!).

TABLE VIII.
MEANS OF REPORTED ACTUAL GRADES AND PERCEIVED GRADES FOR BOTH GROUPS OF HIGH ACHIEVERS (N = 17) AND LOW ACHIEVERS (N = 17)

	Mean of Actual Grade	Mean of Perceived Grade
High Achievers	18.5	19.29
Low Achievers	11.46	17.14

IV. DISCUSSION

One purpose of this study was to examine the effect of different patterns of language learning perfectionism in the adoption of different strategy choices. MANONA analyzing all four groups of language perfectionism found to be significant, and two prominent patterns namely HP/LN and HP/HN found to be representative of Iranian students. Consequently, the first null hypothesis of the study was rejected for HP/LN and HP/HN perfectionism, indicating these types of perfectionism made significant differences in use of language learning strategies (except non significant application of compensation strategies by HP/HN). The significant value, at which the first null hypothesis of the study was rejected $p = .000$ revealed the importance of both HP/LN and HP/HN in effective strategy use. On the other hand, the first null hypothesis of the study was maintained for LP/HN and LP/LN perfectionism, indicating these types of perfectionism made no significant differences in use of language learning strategies or they found not to be determinants in use of strategies. However, beta weights for the two conspicuous patterns of perfectionism clearly indicated the superiority of HP/LN specifically by applying compensation strategies. In other words, the major hurdle of HP/HN was their shunning compensation strategies. Hence, guessing intelligently and circumlocution found to be the ways to escape the capture of negative aspect of perfectionism for HP/HN perfectionists. Interestingly, these sorts of strategies revealed to be in the service of good language learning as suggested by Oxford (1990).

The modifying roles of each positive and negative perfectionism in the association of language learning styles and strategies were also analyzed leading to the rejection of the second null hypothesis of the study, indicating that positive perfectionism significantly modified the relationship between language learning styles and strategies in a positive fashion. In contrast, the third null hypothesis of the study regarding negative perfectionism, was rejected only with regard to compensation strategies, indicating negative perfectionism significantly modified the relationship between language learning styles with compensation strategies in negative fashion. However, this null hypothesis was maintained with regard to other strategies, indicating negative perfectionism did not significantly modify the relationship between language learning styles with other strategies.

The findings found to be in line with Gregersen and Horwitz's (2002) study that regarded perfectionism (negative aspect) to affect detrimentally language performance by increasing the anxiety associated with L2 learning settings. As revealed, however, some form of perfectionism represented a robust positive disposition (Terry-Short, et al., 1995) and it could be unwise to consider perfectionism in any form to be maladaptive. Then, the findings also corroborated Swain and Burnaby's (1976) study that identified a tendency toward adaptive perfectionism as an important factor significantly correlated with L2 performance success in French immersion programs. It could be also inferred that negative perfectionism might terribly accompany debilitating anxiety, whereas positive perfectionism might conclusively accompany facilitative anxiety in language learning.

Qualitative differences between high achievers and low achievers in this study helped to the realization that, unlike high achievers, low achievers possessed veins of negative perfectionism as well as positive perfectionism. It evidenced Frost et al.'s (1990) notion of perfectionistic concerns among low achievers that made language learning process miserable for them by expecting to speak flawlessly, with no grammar or pronunciation errors, and as easily as an L1. So, it is up to teachers to identify the signs of negative perfectionism in the learners and work to explore their earlier belief systems in order to help them.

V. CONCLUSION

The major findings presented in this study on the modifying roles of perfectionism in the relationship between language learning styles and strategies are as follow:

1. Some perfectionism patterns make significant differences in use of language learning strategies, in that, while, both HP/LN (adaptive) and HP/HN (maladaptive) perfectionism contribute to the employment of language learning strategies, LP/HN (extreme case) and LP/LN (non-perfectionist) have no contribution. Although, HP/LN and HP/HN are equally significant in use of memory strategies, HP/LN outweighs by causing application of more language learning strategies and particularly significant employment of compensation strategies.
2. Positive perfectionism positively modifies the relationship between language learning styles and strategies. It is more relevant factor attributing students' language learning strategies than styles.
3. Negative perfectionism negatively modifies the relationship between language learning styles and compensation strategies. It has no significant role for other strategies.
4. High achievers contrast with low achievers in that high achievers exhibit more positive perfectionism and absence of negative perfectionism, but low achievers exhibit signs of both positive and negative perfectionism.

The research findings indicate that the interactive effects of language learning styles with language learning perfectionism usher in more insight in foreign language learning process or the adoption of language learning strategies. It is important to note that perfectionism can do more than make language learning unpleasant. Positive perfectionism, a desire to learn and discover new things and concepts is perceived as driving force behind success in second language learning. It is understood as an enjoyable effort to do one's best and an optimistic aspire to do better. Accompanying each of language learning styles, it still gives students credit for what they have accomplished while looking forward to new challenges and opportunities in applying language learning strategies. However, negative perfectionism can be counter-productive, as winning and infallibility may be considered the only reasons for getting rigid results. Accompanying each of language learning styles, it brings discredit on what students have desperately tried while running into more difficulties in use of language learning strategies, particularly in use of compensation strategies. Then, it is highly recommended that teachers stimulate negative perfectionists to practice compensation strategies through guessing intelligently in listening and reading, and overcoming limitations by circumlocution or using simple words in speaking and writing.

Finally, since a friendly and supportive learning environment is believed to facilitate learning of the foreign language, encouraging a not highly competitive learning situation by styles and strategies awareness raising is more important than quantitative summative evaluation of students. Thus, teachers are advised to implement intervention strategies targeted for maladaptive perfectionists; these may include identifying and correcting irrational and rigid beliefs about language learning (e. g. fear of making mistakes, self-criticism, excessive expectation), and encouraging students to take risks in learning language by particular use of compensation strategies.

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Challenges of Adults in Learning English as a Second Language: Focus on Adult Education in China

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Abstract—Adult education functions significantly in Chinese education. Adults' ESL learning especially plays an important role on the development of China and of the adults themselves. This study aimed to discover challenges and problems of Chinese adults' ESL learning, and the solutions to these problems. A random sample of 50 Chinese adult ESL learners was used. The data gathering consisted of a questionnaire, and the data analysis employed both quantitative and qualitative methods. The findings confirmed that ESL learning is very important for Chinese adults' future life. However, they have experienced many difficulties and problems when pursuing ESL learning, regardless some advantages they may have over children. Many suggestions were thus made to improve adults' ESL learning.

Index Terms—ESL learning, adult education, advantages and problems of adults' ESL learning

I. INTRODUCTION

In terms of adults' learning, we need to know what "adult" refers to. However, it is difficult to define "adult" since there is "no particular arrangement of criteria" (Little, McAllister & Priebe, 1991, p. 22). People who reach the legal age of adults are given the right of voting and getting a driving license and marriage, but they may not be independent psychologically or economically to live in society, while people who do not reach this legal age may be mature enough for work. However, puberty is generally viewed as "a key point for differentiating between children and adults" (Brown, 1991, p. 25). After puberty, people become adults biologically.

In China, the legal age of an adult is 18 years old. However, the adult education in China is not defined according to age. For example, undergraduates are usually aged from 19 to 25, but they do not belong to adult education because they were registered in high schools before entering universities. Actually, adult education in China is for students who are not currently registered in high schools, but want to study further in higher education.

Adult education, especially teaching and learning English as a second language (ESL), functions significantly in Chinese education. The adults' ESL learning is very different from children's. In some aspects, adults may have some advantages over children. However, as Richard-Amato (1996, p. 25) said, "being older is not always advantageous in learning a second language". During the process of ESL learning, Chinese adults will definitely encounter many problems. The solutions to these problems should thus be discovered.

II. THE RESEARCH AIM AND THE QUESTIONS

The main aim of this study was to discover challenges and problems of Chinese adults' ESL learning, and the solutions to these problems. This study pursued the following four questions in order to achieve this aim:

1. What are the Chinese adults' views on the reasons of their pursuing ESL learning?
2. What are the Chinese adults' views on the advantages of ESL learning that adults may have over children?
3. What are the Chinese adults' views on the problems of their ESL learning?
4. What are the Chinese adults' views on how to improve adults' ESL learning?

The findings from this study are helpful for Chinese ESL adult learners to improve their ESL learning. This study will strengthen research in the fields of adult education and ESL learning.

III. THE SIGNIFICANCE OF THE RESEARCH

“Continuing education is an important function of higher education institutions” (Center for Educational Research and Innovation, 1987, p. 89). It may be more important than a child’s education since a person’s time in adulthood is usually longer than in childhood and teenage, based on 18 years legal age as an adult, and adults are generally more than children in population. Therefore, adult education gives more contribution in the promotion of citizen’s attainments. Moreover, a country’s development depends on every citizen’s contribution. “As the technology becomes increasingly complex and sophisticated, the economy will require more highly skilled people in order to operate these machine systems and put them to their most productive use” (Center for Educational Research and Innovation, 1987, p. 17). Without learning, skills and knowledge cannot be achieved. People thus cannot work technologically. If the citizen’s literacy level is very low, it is very difficult for the country to develop.

Adult education is especially important in China since the average literacy level of Chinese citizens is too low. According to the 2001 China’s national census (Zong Shi, 2002; Xie Guodong & Du Yue, 2002), more than 85,070,000 citizens are illiterates or know very few Chinese characters, and most of them are over 15 years old. Therefore, adult education is especially important in the promotion of Chinese citizen’s attainments and the development of China.

IV. LITERATURE REVIEW

Adult ESL learning is very different from that of children who rely much on highly visual websites with interactive games, and require English lessons to be fun and rewarding (Graddol, 2006). Adult ESL learners have their unique difficulties that are different from that of children. The difficulties need to be identified. Teaching approaches and learning strategies that are suitable for adults’ learning also need to be researched. In the adult ESL education literature, adult education principles, guidelines for practice, and some of the distinctive difficulties that adult ESL learners have in the classroom were described (Brod, 1995; California State Department of Education, 1993; Crandall & Peyton, 1993; Ramirez, 1994; Smoke, 1998; Weinstein-Shr, 1993; Wrigley & Guth, 1992). However, Norton Peirce (1995, 2000) claimed that little research addressed on the complex relationships among adult learners’ identities, the social contexts of their daily lives, the classroom context, and investment in learning English. Moreover, a number of studies (Levy, Osborn & Plunkett, 2003; Spencer-Oatey & Xiong, 2006; Wong, 2001; Wu, 2013) have examined difficulties of Chinese speaking adults who were living in an English-speaking country, and learning strategies to survive or even succeed in studying overseas. Surprisingly, it appears that few studies concerned Chinese adults who live in China, while this number of group is much larger than that of people who live overseas. The present research thus seeks to find out the problems that Chinese adults in China have in ESL learning and solutions to these problems.

V. METHODOLOGY

This study was based on a survey design. The data gathering consisted of a questionnaire (see Appendix). The first three research questions were examined through the closed questions of the questionnaire, which was the first step in the data collection. The open-ended questions further explored the first three research questions and also investigated the fourth research question.

This study recruited fifty (50) Chinese adult ESL learners. They were 25 males and 25 females. Hard copies of questionnaires and details of the study were posted to potential participants. The data analysis in this study employed both quantitative and qualitative methodological methods. The analysis of the questionnaires focused on answering the research questions. This data analysis also involves discussion of issues generated from the data and whether they are supported or refuted in existing literature related to this topic.

VI. FINDINGS

In this research study, all of the 50 questionnaires distributed were completed and returned by the participants. All of the 19 closed questions were answered, whilst the four open-ended questions received 25 responses for each question. According to the responses from the participants, differences in gender, age, and length of learning English were not found in the views being questioned. It was commonly acknowledged by the participants that ESL learning is very important for their future life, and they did experience difficulties and problems when pursuing ESL learning, although they may have some advantages over children. Many suggestions were also made to improve adults’ ESL learning.

VII. DISCUSSION

This section will analyse the findings in relation to the research questions. When citing a participant, the participant is coded as “QP A”, “QP B” or “QP C”, and so on.

What are the Chinese adults’ views on the reasons of their pursuing ESL learning?

According to the responses from 50 questionnaires, most of the participants (90%) marked “agree” or “strongly agree” on the view that the Chinese government highly emphasizes ESL learning in China. As the participants stated:

The English exam is compulsory for students for all entrance exams to a higher school, such as the senior high school entrance exam, the undergraduate entrance exam and the postgraduate entrance exam. Each student who wants to study further for a Master’s and a Doctor’s degree must achieve a score of 50 out of 100 in the English exam no

matter which major he/she studies. Otherwise the student is not offered an enrolment in postgraduate study no matter how well he/she has done in other subjects (QP A).

The English exam is compulsory for teachers at all levels of schools and universities to get a higher professional title and promotion. Teachers in all schools and universities must achieve 60 per cent in the English exam held in their local province to get the permission and qualification for a higher professional title, such as lecturer and professor. No matter how hard or how well the teachers have worked, they cannot be promoted to a higher position if they fail the English exam (QP B).

Most of the participants (over 80%) also agreed that English is very important for Chinese adults to compete in the labor market and English is an important means for Chinese people to earn money.

What are the Chinese adults' views on the advantages of ESL learning that adults may have over children?

Many participants (78%) indicated that adults concentrate on learning more easily than children. According to a participant's statement:

When I studied English night class after I had already worked during the day in a secondary school, to my surprise, my mind did not wander away during the lesson as usual. My attention kept concentrating on the class and the efficacy was much higher than when I studied in primary and high schools (QP C).

This point of view was supported by Harmer (1991, p. 7) who noted, "adults' concentration span is generally longer than children's".

Nearly all participants (96%) revealed that adults usually take more responsibility for the learning process and are more active in learning than children. This opinion reflected a similar opinion to Ur (1996, p. 295) who said that "most adults come to the class voluntarily, while most children are given no choice".

Most of the participants (90%) indicated that adults have stronger motivation in learning English than children. A questionnaire of 300 adult English learners conducted by Wu Huifang (2002) showed that about 70 per cent Chinese adults learned English for a better job. Graddol (2006, para. 3) also pointed out, "young children don't usually have the kind of instrumental motivation and determination for learning English that older learners often have (though their parents and relations may)".

80% of participants said that adults' cognitive ability is greater than children's and adult ESL learners have a greater knowledge of the world in general and more experiences. As a participant stated:

I feel that I am more intelligent than when I was young. When I read the books of primary school, to my surprise, I find it so simple. Is this what I found too difficult to learn in primary school? (QP D)

This viewpoint was supported by Graddol (2006, para. 3) who noted, "young learners have less experience at learning and so fewer cognitive strategies for remembering things, or coping with the discouraging setbacks that are typical of any learning curve". Brown (1994: 90) also noted, "[adults] can utilize various deductive and abstract processes to shortcut the learning of grammatical and other linguistic concepts".

What are the Chinese adults' views on the problems of their ESL learning?

A large majority of participants (94%) agreed that adults especially find difficulty in obtaining a native-like accent, and adults who missed ESL learning thus lose confidence. The statistics conducted by Seliger (as cited in Wu Biyu, 2005) reported that only 6% to 8% of adults might have no first language accent in second language learning. Linguists as well as the general public often share the point of view that "one started learning English as a second language as an adult never managed to learn it properly, and another who learns it as a child is indistinguishable from a native" (Cook, 1991, p. 83). In fact, "the differences of accent, word choice, or grammatical features usually set adults apart from native speakers or from speakers who began learning the language while they were very young" (Lightbown & Spada, 1993, p. 42).

76% of participants indicated that adults often find it stressful when they are unable to express themselves clearly and correctly in a second language. According to Wong (2006), adults may feel very embarrassed about being students again for the feeling of being old and away from school for many years. A questionnaire of 300 adult English learners conducted by Wu Huifang (2002, p. 61) showed that "about 80 per cent Chinese adults felt embarrassed or ashamed of making mistakes". Lightbown and Spada also said (1993, p. 42), "adults are often embarrassed by their lack of mastery of the language".

80% of participants agreed that family factor plays a negative role on adults' ESL learning. As a participant complained:

My husband has been recently fighting with me over the money that I spent on the tuition fee. Even though I have already done all the housework, he is still not satisfied (QP E).

This view is similar to that of Bourgeois (1999, p. 90) who showed that "about half of students questioned stated that the major difficulty was the lack of time because of familial obligations". He thus concluded that the most common obstacles to adults' learning are the costs incurred and lack of time.

Many participants (82%) indicated that the first language strongly interferes with adults' English learning. As a participant complained:

I often reply to a negative question in English in a wrong way, even though I know the correct answer clearly. When a friend meets me and says, 'I have not seen you for a long time'. I often answer 'yes'. My English teacher ever played a joke with me. He asked, 'are you Ting'? I answered, 'yes'. Then he asked, 'aren't you Ting?' I answered, 'NO, I AM

Ting'. Because the logical grammar in Chinese is opposite to that in English, when I answer 'yes', it means that I agree with what my friend is saying that 'I have not seen you for a long time'. When I answered 'no', it means that I did not agree with what my teacher said that 'you are not Ting'. However, because I have been used to thinking in Chinese language, I can not change into the way of English thinking (QP F).

What are the Chinese adults' views on how to improve adults' ESL learning?

According to the responses to the open-ended questionnaires, having confidence was mentioned 10 times. This was the most frequently mentioned suggestion for improving adult ESL learning. As a participant responded:

I lost confidence in playing the piano ten years ago. Since I did not begin to play the piano until 17 years old, I felt I could not compete with those who started early like 4 or 5 years old. However, five years later, I was confident again because I found a girl who began to play at 5 years old but did not improve her skills highly when she grew up. Therefore, I concluded that if one does not study hard, even though long time has past, he/she cannot achieve more, while only if one contributes enough time and effort, can he/she succeed in learning (QP G).

This view was supported by Carroll and Du Shichun (as cited in Wu Biyu, 2005) who pointed out that the language ability one can reach is up to how long he/she has spent on the language study rather than when he/she began to learn, and how he/she spent the time in learning the language. Knox (1986, p. 21) also noted, "most adults, in fact, can learn almost anything they want to if they are willing to devote enough time and attention and if they receive some assistance".

Many participants (8) suggested that adult ESL learners should coordinate the family relationship and properly manage time for working and learning. As they responded:

They should explain clearly that the family can benefit greatly from learning English. The ESL learner can get a better job or be promoted by learning English. As a result, the salary and position will be more and higher than before. The ESL learner can also teach his/her children English at home. As their children do not have to join English night class, the tuition fee can be saved as well (QP H).

Adults should plan and write down the procedure of what they are going to do in the coming several days. This is very helpful for reminding adults what to do next. If people do not write down, they have to remember what to do, such as cleaning, cooking and going shopping. This will influence the memorization of learning. If people do not memorize a lot of trifling things, they can remember what they have learned better. I once complained that I had to forget things. I thought it would be great if I never forget what I had learned. Later, I read something about forgetting from a magazine. It says, 'we forget things in order to remember useful things better'. I then understood that if people did not forget, their head would be fulfilled over time. Therefore, I usually write down what I am going to do so that my head will have enough room for memorizing knowledge (QP I).

Adults should make use of short times like 5 or 10 minutes. Adults usually have a lot of things to do every day, such as house working and job working. It is hard for them to get a whole-day free time for learning. Therefore, they have to make use of short free times because these times can accumulate more (QP J).

Suggestions of that adults should consider the competition as a motivation to encourage them to study hard, rather than being stopped by the feelings of embarrassment, and that ESL adult learners should try their best to adjust to the way of English thinking during ESL, were mentioned 5 and 3 times respectively.

VIII. RECOMMENDATIONS

Based on the responses by Chinese adult ESL learners, recommendations are made to improve adults' ESL learning. They were listed as follows:

1. Adults should have confidence in ESL learning.
2. Adults should consider the competition as a motivation to encourage them to study hard, rather than being stopped by the feelings of embarrassment.
3. Adult ESL learners should coordinate the family relationship and properly manage time for working and learning.
4. ESL adult learners should try their best to adjust to the way of English thinking during ESL learning.

IX. CONCLUSION

This study examined Chinese adult ESL learners' views on the reasons of their pursuing ESL learning, the advantages of ESL learning that adults may have over children, the problems of their ESL learning, and how to improve adults' ESL learning. The findings confirmed that adult education functions significantly in Chinese education. Adults' ESL learning especially plays an important role on the development of China and of the adults themselves. Although they may have some advantages over children, they did experience difficulties and problems when pursuing ESL learning. Many suggestions were also made to improve adults' ESL learning. This research could be further developed if the research to be undertaken in order to discover teaching approaches and learning strategies which best suit adults' real situation.

APPENDIX

Questionnaire to examine challenges of Chinese adults' ESL learning.

1) Part A: Please highlight only one choice.

- 1. **Your native language:** a. Chinese b. English
- 2. **Gender:** a. Male b. Female
- 3. **Age:** a. 18-24 b. 25-35 c. 36-50 d. Over 50
- 4. **Length of learning English as a second language (up to now):**
 - a. Less than 12 months
 - b. Over one year to four years
 - c. Over four years to nine years
 - d. Over nine years
- 5. **Highest qualification completed**
 - a. High school b. Certificate/Diploma c. Bachelor degree d. Masters degree
 - e. Doctoral degree f. Other(s) (please specify)_____

2) Part B: Please highlight your most appropriate response.

a) Directions: Please indicate your most appropriate response by using the following criteria:

		<i>SDA= Strongly Disagree;</i>	<i>DA= Disagree;</i>	<i>NS=Not Sure;</i>	<i>A= Agree;</i>	<i>SA= Strongly Agree</i>
No.	Challenges of Adults in Learning English as a Second Language: Focus on Adult Education in China	Weighted Scores				
• Your views on the reasons of pursuing ESL learning						
6	The Chinese government highly emphasizes ESL learning in China.	SDA	DA	NS	A	SA
7	Teachers in China have to learn English as a second language in order to get promoted.	SDA	DA	NS	A	SA
8	English is very important for Chinese adults to compete in the labor market.	SDA	DA	NS	A	SA
9	English is an important means for Chinese people to earn money.	SDA	DA	NS	A	SA
• Your views on the advantages of ESL learning that adults may have over children						
10	Adults concentrate on learning more easily than children.	SDA	DA	NS	A	SA
11	Adults usually take more responsibility for the learning process and are more active in learning than children.	SDA	DA	NS	A	SA
12	Adults have stronger motivation in learning English than children.	SDA	DA	NS	A	SA
13	Adults' cognitive ability is greater than children's.	SDA	DA	NS	A	SA
14	Adult ESL learners have a greater knowledge of the world in general and more experiences.	SDA	DA	NS	A	SA
• Your views on the problems of adults' ESL learning						
15	Adults especially find difficulty in obtaining a native-like accent.	SDA	DA	NS	A	SA
16	Adults who missed ESL learning in childhood lose confidence.	SDA	DA	NS	A	SA
17	Adults often find it stressful when they are unable to express themselves clearly and correctly in a second language.	SDA	DA	NS	A	SA
18	Family factor plays a negative role on adults' ESL learning.	SDA	DA	NS	A	SA
19	The first language strongly interferes with adults' English learning.	SDA	DA	NS	A	SA

Open-ended questions:

- 1. Please write down any comments you would like to make regarding the reasons of Chinese adults' pursuing ESL learning.
- 2. Please write down any comments you would like to make regarding the advantages of ESL learning that adults may have over children.
- 3. Please write down any comments you would like to make regarding the problems of adults' ESL learning.
- 4. Please write down any comments you would like to make regarding how to improve adults' ESL learning.

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The Effect of Using Gesture on Resolving Lexical Ambiguity in L2

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Abstract—The study aimed to shed light on the use of gesture in resolving lexical ambiguity employed by TEFL students. To this end, 60 intermediate Iranian learners, studying at Kish Way Language School in Iran were recruited. The participants were randomly put into two groups: one experimental group and one control group. In the experimental groups homonyms were taught through gesture, but the control group learned homonyms through in Audio-lingual method. The results highlighted the value of gesture in resolving lexical ambiguity. Moreover, to investigate whether or not there were any significant relationships between spatial and kinesthetic intelligences on the one hand and the ability to resolve lexical ambiguity on the other, a Pearson correlation procedure was used. The results showed a significant relationship between spatial/kinesthetic intelligences and the ability to resolve lexical ambiguity.

Index Terms—gesture, lexical ambiguity, homonymy, spatial intelligence, kinesthetic intelligence

I. INTRODUCTION

Psychologists, language learning specialists and language teachers have been interested in learning vocabulary for a noticeable stretch of time. Accordingly, researchers have attempted to obviate possible difficulties and complexities in this regard. Since learning any language is based on its vocabulary and distinguishing the meaning that each word conveys; therefore, approaching this goal, i.e., learning vocabulary without difficulty with long-term retention, requires various tasks. In general, there are two ways of teaching vocabulary: the explicit way which is direct, intentional conscious both in and out of the context; and the implicit one which is indirect accidental and subconscious. The present study will focus only on the explicit method.

Additionally, in learning vocabulary the most prominent difficulty that learners encounter is words with more than one meaning which causes uncertainty among learners in recalling the exact meaning of a word, that is ambiguity. Petten (2006) believes that these vocabularies not only put learners in trouble but influence their comprehension, as well. Among words with multiple meaning -ambiguous words- homonyms are very demanding. One of the major reasons for this problem is the students' lack of knowledge of homonyms. One way to fill this gap is by highlighting the role of this type of words in EFL classrooms, conducting research on ambiguity and helping learners from the early stages of language learning.

There are two general types of ambiguity: syntactic and lexical ambiguity. Lexical ambiguity includes two components: homonymy and polysemy, the former concerns words with the same pronunciation but two different unrelated meanings, and the latter involves words with one pronunciation and two or more distinct but related meanings; it leads to several difficulties: it impedes and limits recalling words; it influences lexical decision making; it postpones word processing; it creates difficulties in acquiring words; it generates problem in communication, interaction and comprehension, (Kidd & Holler, 2009) and generally it affects ESL and EFL learners' motivation that constrain learning; therefore, it is necessary to resolve it in order to enhance learning a foreign/second language.

There are various studies on ways of resolving lexical ambiguity. Consequently, some models have been presented; for example, "exhaustive access model, the ordered model, contextual model and multiple access model" (Harley, 2008; Petten, 2006); template rules (Krovetz & Croft, 1992); Polaroid words (Hirst, 1988); and in line with the present study Kidd and Holler (2009), who consider gesture as a disambiguation technique.

Subsequently, according to Holler and Beattie (2005), gesture eases lexical retrieval; additionally, speaking with hands and body posture indicates the intentions of interlocutors more clearly; moreover, Butcher and Goldin-Meadow (2000) posit that adding gesture to word provides children with an extra way of communication that helps them to convey their meaning just through simple hand movement even before their entrance in holophrastic stage, (e.g., show a cup while uttering "mine"). Gestures increase learners' awareness and noticing, and internalize the content and sense of words (Kidd & Holler, 2009). It resolves lexical ambiguity by facilitating lexical recalling (Alibali, Kita & Young, 2000;

Holler & Beattie, 2005). It stimulates younger children's speech and acts as a complementary component through speaking for adults (Göksun, Hirsh & Gollinkoff, 2009).

Regardless of the specific language teaching method adopted to teach certain content, a number of suggestions have been made for procedures which help students to develop their knowledge on ambiguous words. This research presents a new technique for managing ambiguity in words with multiple meanings through gesture among EFL learners and tries to investigate the relationship between two kinds of intelligence – spatial and kinesthetic- in learning ambiguous words. In the present study, only homonyms are taken into consideration. In response to this need, the present study aims to address the following research questions:

1. Does gesture have any effect on resolving lexical ambiguity and influence learning?
2. Are there any significant relationships between spatial/kinesthetic intelligences on the one hand and the ability to resolve lexical ambiguity on the other?

II. REVIEW OF THE RELATED LITERATURE

In language learning, vocabulary plays a significant role (Alavi & Keivanpanah, 2006). One of the controversial issues in second language learning, like other pedagogical fields of study is finding and presenting the best way of teaching learners. Additionally, the most problematic aspect of learning vocabulary is ambiguity, which means the probability of defining an utterance in two or more obvious forms that has become the center of attention. Petten (2006) believes that these vocabularies not only put learners in trouble but influence their comprehension, as well. Moreover, Broaders et al., (2007) and Kidd and Holler (2009) claimed that speakers by using gestures reveal and transfer some aspect of information while speaking that is not observable in their speech but on gesture. According to other scholars, hand movement especially for teachers and in school context could be useful for retrieving not only concrete but also abstract concepts (Alibali et al., 2000; Göksun, et al., 2009; Kelly et al., 2008; Studdert-Kennedy, 1993). According to Iverson and Goldin-Meadow (2005), during language learning, children take advantage of hands movement to convey the meanings that they are not able to utter by words. Subsequently, the point that body movement helps children to transfer their meanings which is difficult to express verbally, brings to mind the fact that gesture is a learning facilitator, supplementary and a reinforcing aid for learners (Asher, 1966; Göksun, et al., 2009; Iverson & Goldin-Meadow, 2005).

Ibraheem and Khan (2012) claim that using hand makes gesture a speech technique; Moreover, many language instructors and teachers confirm the positive effect of gesture on learners' memorization (Asher, 1966; Göksun, et al. 2009; Macedonia & Von Kriegstein, 2012; Tellier, 2008; Tellier, 2009). Some scholars believe that gesture simultaneously benefits from two senses of the learners, i.e., their aural and imagination in transferring teaching material while discourse and speaking do this in an explicit way. Indeed, using body motion through teaching guarantees transferring abstract concepts (Goldin-Meadow & Wagner, 2005; Macedonia & Von Kriegstein, 2012; Ping & Goldin-Meadow, 2008; Tellier, 2009).

As ambiguous words seem to cause difficulty in language system, Gillon (1990) states that the notion of ambiguity is prominent for linguists and philosophers, too. Some scholars argue that one of the outstanding features of sentence meaning is ambiguity, their argumentation is not only semantic mapping, but correlating utterances with the things that happen in the mind and around the world, as well (Clare, 2003; Wasow, et al. 2005). One type of ambiguity is lexical or referential ambiguity which is rooted in one word that may result in a ridiculous, funny sense (Bach, 2009). In other words, it concerns words having more than one definition (Hudson, 2000; Wasow, Perfors & Beaver, 2005). According to Klepouniotou (2002), studies in psycholinguistics concern lexical ambiguity. Moreover, Wasow, et al. (2005) note that it is frequent and related to words with multiple meanings in English (Alfawareh & Jusoh, 2011; Klepouniotou, 2002). Lexical ambiguity includes two components: homonymy and polysemy (Bach, no date); according to Kidd and Holler (2009) homonymy concerns words with the same pronunciation but two different unrelated meanings, and polysemy includes words with one pronunciation and two or more distinct but related meaning. Homonymy is a subcategory of lexical ambiguity; therefore, it is concerned with ambiguous words. They are words with common tone and distinct meanings (Jacobson, Lapp & Flood, 2007). Clare (2003) believes that ambiguity is the most outstanding dilemma in language processing. Lexical ambiguity creates an effortful, challenging situation among students and might mislead them in finding an appropriate meaning for words. Because lexical ambiguity affects information retrieval and constrains finding suitable sense for items, it must be resolved (Krovetz & Croft, 1992).

Since disambiguating in a text or context is *word sense disambiguation*, Navigli (2009) believes that for the sake of ambiguity of language, context is a key factor which determines exact lexical interpretation. Regarding the role of gesture in resolving ambiguity, Kidd and Holler (2009) discuss the advantage of gesture as a disambiguation approach. The movement of head, arm, body and face expresses an idea or meaning and enhances transferring unmentionable information. Broaders et al., (2007.) claim that speakers by using gestures reveal and transfer some aspect of information while speaking that is not observable in their speech.

Howard Gardner is the first psychologist who proposed the theory of Multiple Intelligences Theory (MIT) in 1983 (Mirzazadeh, 2012; Xie & Lin, 2009). According to Uzun öz (2011), this hypothesis in comparison with techniques used in old, ordinary methods is more helpful for learners and their learning. According to Nolen (2003), people can learn language, but some of them are better than others. This is due to their intelligence type. In language learning and teaching, Multiple Intelligence plays a prominent role (Armstrong, 2007).

As behaviorists' recommendations were around learners, their needs and interests, Zarei and Mohezeni (2012) mention that through utilizing MIs activities learners would be more motivated. So applying them in language instruction can help meeting learners' needs and interests. About the effectiveness of using multiple intelligences activities in curriculum design Uzunöz (2011) believes that giving information to the students and assessing them promote learning quality and meet the learners' requirements in the best possible way. Moreover, Mirzazadeh (2012) states that benefiting from this theory specifically in language learning classrooms can stimulate the learners to make progress not only in learning material but also in their social lives.

III. METHODOLOGY

A. Participants

To accomplish the objectives of this study, an experimental group was employed which included 60 female EFL students at Kish Way Language School in Iran-Karaj. The participants were at the intermediate level of proficiency. They were given a Cambridge Key English Test (KET) in order to homogenize them at the outset of the study from whom 40 students were chosen. The participants' ages ranged from 16 to 35. Additionally, there is a control group of 20 candidates with the same level of proficiency.

B. Instrumentation

To achieve the goal of this study the following tests were utilized by the researcher: (1) Key English Test (KET) for homogenizing the learners based on their general English proficiency prior to the treatment. (2) Quizzes based on the teaching materials were given in the format of definition writing tests and question stimuli. (3) Gardner's multiple intelligences questionnaire was given to the candidates to determine their intelligence profile (kinesthetic and spatial-visual).

A sample KET was used for homogenizing the participants at the outset of the study. KET consists of four parts: reading and writing (paper 1), listening (paper 2) and speaking (paper 3).

The sample KET used in this study originally consisted of 75 reading and writing, listening and speaking items (45 reading & writing questions and 15 listening items plus 15 speaking questions range from easy to difficult daily conversations). The allocated time for the KET was one hour and 15 minutes (one hour for reading, writing and listening plus 15 minutes for speaking).

Two raters participated in the rating of these two sections: the researcher herself and one of her colleague who holds an MA in TEFL with around 8 years of teaching experience. In accordance with the objective of the present study, the researcher used some tests on homonyms. Among homonyms she considered 20 items as a test of homonyms. The language of the items was at the proficiency level of the learners.

In order to recognize what type of intelligence (spatial or bodily-kinesthetic) the learners use to understand homonyms through gesture, in what intelligence the candidates are stronger and finally to answer the second research question, the multiple intelligences questionnaire was administered to the participants to specify their intelligence profile. Although the original questionnaire consisted of 90 statements related to each of the nine intelligences, based on the research questions of the present study, participants answered just two parts of the relating intelligences namely, kinesthetic and spatial ones in 20 items based on Howard Gardner's multiple intelligences questionnaire. Students chose each item which described them better.

C. Procedure

After homogenizing the learners via Cambridge English test (KET), These 40 students were randomly put into one experimental group. There was also another group as a control group in which homonyms were taught in a traditional mechanical drill as in Audio-lingual method through repetition, illustration and memorization. All the classes were taught by the researcher to minimize the impact of teacher variability during the 6 sessions of instruction which lasted for half a month (three sessions a week). The third session was allocated to Gardner's intelligence questionnaire.

Firstly, in order to teach homonyms as an ambiguous word in both experimental and control groups the researcher wrote the word "homonymy" on the board with colored marker and pronounced it. Then, the researcher tried to make the definitions of homonym as understandable as possible, because this concept was new for the learners. For clarifying the meaning of homonyms some examples of homonym pairs were given such as "bank, bat and so on" which were showed to the learners in flashcards using magnet that one by one she put on the board. During defining and exemplifying she turned back and pointed to the written word on the board i.e. homonym repeatedly, in order to trace the learners' memory and draw their attention to the teaching concept. In this part the researcher benefited from speech only strategy.

In the second phase and the third session of teaching homonyms, the researcher added body gesture to each homonym's meaning in the experimental groups in order to make sure that the participants' used pantomime as a visual aid. Most of the gestures that the researcher utilized were iconic and deictic ones. This part was motivating for the learners for the reason that, it created an interesting, full of fun atmosphere, which was believed to enhance learning. Gesture-speech strategy was used in this phase.

In the same phase, but in the control group, the researcher utilized hand drawn pictures on the board and illustrated the homonyms in order to make meaning clear. This session ended with Gardner’s multiple intelligences questionnaire containing 20 statements given to the participants. It included 20 items, ten of these statements tested the spatial-visual intelligence and the other ten described the bodily-kinesthetic intelligence. The allocated time to do this was ten minutes.

In the fourth session, the teacher called the learners to come to the board individually, she showed a homonym pair to each of them to write the word on the board, mime its meaning. The other learners were given an opportunity to negotiate its meaning and interact with the teacher under her monitoring which produced atmosphere of a cooperative problem solving among them in resolving ambiguity. The performers of this task were free to use gesture or a combination of gesture and speech. In the control group, during the fourth session, the same procedure was employed by the researcher.

In the third phase of teaching homonyms during the last two sessions in both groups, the researcher prepared some sentences with underlined homonyms and the learners were asked to choose the correct meaning presented in front of each sentence in parentheses. This method was used to investigate the effect of context on finding appropriate meaning. At the end of this session, the researcher gave a list of homonyms taught to the participants, comprising 30 homonyms with their pictures and meaning, 5 per page, in order to help them to review, if needed. To end the lesson, the learners did exercises to internalize the homonyms and evaluate their understanding through several tests such as matching, defining and multiple choice tests.

It should be noted that the content validity of the test was taken for granted because it was based on the taught materials; and the reliability was estimated to be .83 using the K-R21 reliability formula, which is available in Appendix E.

IV. RESULTS AND ANALYSIS

The first research question attempted to see whether gesture affects EFL learners’ lexical disambiguation. To answer this question, an independent samples t-test was run to compare the experimental and control groups’ mean scores on lexical ambiguity. Descriptive statistics including the mean, standard deviation, etc. are summarized in Table 1.

TABLE1.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS LEXICAL AMBIGUITY BY GROUPS

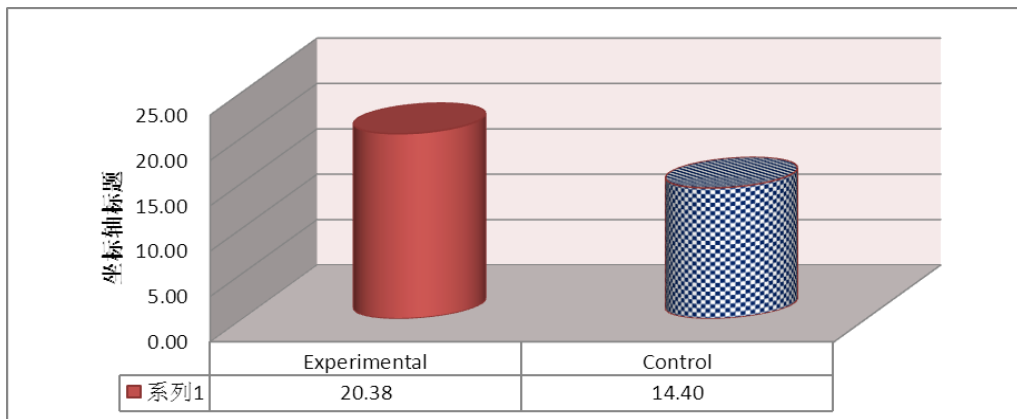
Group	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Experimental	40	20.38	3.585	.567
Control	20	14.40	4.871	1.089

As displayed in Table 1 the mean scores for the experimental and control groups on lexical ambiguity are 20.38 and 14.40, respectively. That is, the mean of the experimental group (mean=20.38) is higher than the mean of the control group (mean=14.40). To see whether or not the difference between the means is statistically significant, an independent samples t-test was run. The results are given in table 2.

TABLE2.
INDEPENDENT T-TEST LEXICAL AMBIGUITY BY GROUPS

Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means							
	F	Sig.	T	Df	Sig. (2.tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
								Lower	Upper
Equal variances assumed	2.981	0.90	5.385	58	.000	5.975	1.110	3.754	8.196
Equal variances not assumed			4.866	29.630	.000	5.975	1.228	3.466	8.484

The results of the independent samples t-test ($t(58) = 5.38, P = .000 < .05$) indicate that there was a significant difference between experimental and control groups’ mean scores on the lexical ambiguity. Thus, it can be concluded that the first null-hypothesis is rejected. The experimental group who received gesture-based treatment outperformed the control group on lexical ambiguity test. It should be noted that the assumption of homogeneity of variances is met (Levene’s $F = 2.98, P = .090 > .05$). That is why the first row of Table 4.3, i.e. “Equal variances assumed” is reported.



Graph 4. Lexical Ambiguity by Groups

Graph 4 clearly shows that there was significant difference between the experimental and control group after administering the treatment.

The second research question aimed to see whether there is a relationship between spatial and kinesthetic intelligences on the one hand, and the ability to resolve lexical ambiguity. To this end, the Pearson correlation procedure was run. The results of the correlation procedure are given in the following table.

TABLE3.
PEARSON CORRELATION SPATIAL AND KINESTHETIC INTELLIGENCE WITH LEXICAL AMBIGUITY

		Lexical Ambiguity
Spatial intelligence	Pearson Correlation	.119
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.364
	N	60
Kinesthetic intelligence	Pearson Correlation	.290*
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.024
	N	60

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

Based on the results displayed in Table 3 it can be concluded that:

A: There is a non-significant and weak relationship between the students’ spatial intelligence and their performance on the lexical ambiguity test $r(58) = .11, P = .364 > .05$.

B: There is a statistically significant, but low, positive relationship between the students’ kinesthetic intelligence and their performance on the lexical ambiguity test $(r(58) = .29, P = .024 < .05)$.

V. DISCUSSIONS AND CONCLUSIONS

The present study was designed to investigate the effect of using gesture on lexical disambiguation among EFL students as well as the relationship between spatial and kinesthetic intelligences and learning homonyms via gesture.

The first research question in the present study focused on the importance of using gesture in resolving lexical ambiguity by EFL learners. The results provide fairly strong support for the effect of gesture. Many studies have been conducted on ambiguity resolution, but there are a few studies on using gesture in resolving ambiguity involved in homonyms (e.g., Kidd & Holler, 2009). Concerning the use of gesture in teaching, Gökşun et al. (2009) believed that adults use gesture as a complementary aid in order to convey their meaning. Further, findings of the present study are compatible with the notion that gesture plays an important, facilitatory role not only in the learning process, but in the cognitive aspect of this phenomenon, as well (Broaders et al. 2007; Cook & Goldin-Meadow, 2006; Gökşun et al. 2009; Holler & Beattie, 2005; Kidd & Holler, 2009; Tellier, 2009).

Furthermore, numerous studies have shown that gesture bears positive impact on resolving lexical ambiguity, learning and comprehending homonyms (Alibali et al. 2000; Broaders et al. 2007; Butcher & Goldin-Meadow, 2000; Cook & Goldin-Meadow, 2006; Kidd & Holler, 2009).

According to Kelly et al. (2008), gesture could be used in teaching curriculum, a suggestion which is supported by the findings of the present study. Moreover, it can be concluded that the proposed technique, i.e. using gesture, can be used to resolve lexical ambiguity, as an effective way in language classrooms. Regarding the advantages of gesture in teaching instruction, it seems crucial to be noted that as Brown (1941) noted human brain is divided in two hemispheres; namely, right and left hemispheres where the right part is responsible for visual and auditory images and the left part is associated with logical, mathematical and analytical information processing. Additionally, he believed that people with left brain dominance answer verbal questions may not be professional in body language interpretation, but people with right brain dominance are good at remembering images and interpreting body language.

In sum, as these two parts of the brain work together and complete each other's duty, it can be concluded that through utilizing gesture as body language in teaching instruction, teachers take advantage of dual channels (gesture plus verbal instruction), or what Tellier (2005) called it motor-modality, can be used to help learners in thinking, analyzing, illustrating, remembering, interpreting, recognizing, recalling and learning teaching material better; therefore, it is beneficial for teachers who want to help their learners to learn second language and teaching curriculum that has not been taken into consideration by other previous studies.

The other finding of the present study was that there is a significant relationship between spatial- kinesthetic intelligences on one hand and the ability to resolve lexical ambiguity. This finding is in accordance with a number of previous studies (Christison, 1996; Gardner, 1999; Mirzazadeh, 2012; Nolen, 2003; Skehan, 1998; Uzunöz, 2012), which supported the present study in that they all corroborated MIs and learners' intelligence profile investigation as an effective tool in teaching instruction.

Zarei and Mohseni (2012) noted that different domains of learning are influenced by various intelligences and MI theory is a predictor of language learning. The findings of the present study can be linked to Gardner's (1993) multiple intelligence theory as a way for all teachers to explore the best method for all students. In accordance with the present study Mirzazadeh (2012), believes that by recognizing learners' different intelligences, we can give them at least a better opportunity of problem solving. In the same vein, the findings of the present study, also lend support to those of Xie and Lin (2009) with Taiwanese university students. They claimed that understanding students' intelligence type and using their governing, dominant intelligence in teaching and learning will enrich teaching course content.

At the same time, the findings are different from a number of studies. The present study shows that learning homonyms through gesture is affected by multiple intelligences (spatial/kinesthetic), but Razmjoo (2008), and Saricaoglu and Arikan (2009) found better that MI profiles do not lead to better language learning. Razmjoo found that there is no significant relationship between language learning and intelligence type in Iranian context. The result of the study done by Saricaoglu and Arikan (2009) on the students' gender and MI profiles relationship and their achievement in grammar, listening and writing in foreign languages found no relationship between spatial, kinesthetic and intrapersonal intelligences and success in learning grammar. Zarei and Aleali (2013) conducted an experiment to determine the relationship between spatial and linguistic intelligences and learning the phonological, semantic and orthographic aspects of words in foreign language vocabulary learning. In contrast with the present study, the findings revealed that there is no relationship between lexical aspect and spatial and linguistic intelligences.

To conclude, as the concept of multiple intelligences has recently become the focus of attention of researchers, and teaching methods have move toward learner centered approaches; attending to learners' needs and motivating them, and being aware of learners' intelligence type paves the way for achieving instructional goals. Although, the above mentioned areas of conflict are probably indicative of the need for further research, perhaps what makes this study different from other studies is that the present research was carried out in an EFL context, while most of the mentioned studies were conducted in ESL settings.

Based on the result of the present study, it can be concluded that in resolving lexical ambiguity, taking advantages of gesture seems to be beneficial.

The analysis of the participants' performance (N=60, including both experimental and control group) revealed that utilizing gesture in resolving lexical ambiguity involved in homonymy was effective. But the control group as expected, performed the worst on the same test, i.e. homonym quizzes. It is worth noting that a reason why the learners had the lowest scores in the control group could have been their misunderstandings and confusion of the teachers' commands. Of course, it needs to be noted that in this study, the learners were given some instructions in order to prevent misunderstandings.

The results obtained from independent samples t-test (Table 2 & 3) revealed that there is a significant difference between experimental and control group mean scores on the lexical ambiguity. Moreover, Pearson correlation showed that there is a relationship between the learners' ability to resolve lexical ambiguity and their intelligence profile. In short, it can be concluded that, utilizing complementary teaching aids (gesture plus vocabulary teaching) in order to improve learners' comprehension of lexically ambiguous words is beneficial.

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Does Metacognitive Strategy Instruction Indeed Improve Chinese EFL Learners' Reading Comprehension Performance and Metacognitive Awareness?

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Abstract—This article reports an experimental study of reading comprehension among lower-intermediate learners of English as a foreign language in China. A sample of 66 participants underwent a program of metacognitive strategy instruction in reading lasting 8 weeks. Measures were taken of their reading comprehension performance and their metacognitive awareness before and after the instruction. Results show that EG and CG do not reveal any significant differences before and after instruction both in reading comprehension test and their reported metacognitive strategies uses and reasons are given in the discussion part.

Index Terms—metacognitive strategy instruction, Chinese EFL learners, reading comprehension performance, metacognitive awareness

I. INTRODUCTION

When it comes to the developments in L2 and EFL reading research, Grabe (1991) mentions reading is probably the most important skill for language learners and points out that the crucial importance of the reading skill in academic contexts had led to considerable research on L2 and EFL reading. According to Sheorey and Mokhtari (2001), many students entering higher education are not prepared for reading demands, which is often due to their low level of reading strategy knowledge and lack of metacognitive control. Reading strategies knowledge uses reveal about the way readers manage their interactions with written text. Recent research has focused on metacognitive awareness, or metacognition, i.e. cognition of cognition. These studies investigate the relationships among metacognitive awareness, strategy use and reading comprehension (e.g. Sheorey & Mokhtari, 2001; Dhieb-Henia, 2003; Malcolm, 2009).

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

A. *Metacognition and Metacognitive Strategy in Reading*

According to Flavell (1979), reading in L1 or L2 is a “cognitive enterprise” which occurs as a result of the interaction among the reader, the text, and the context in which reading takes place. Malcolm (2009) concluded that the important elements of skillful reading include not only the ability to decode text rapidly, accurately and fluently (at the orthographic, lexical, structural and textual levels) but also background and world knowledge or schemata, reading experience, interest, cognition, motivation and reading purpose. Other researchers have emphasized the importance of vocabulary knowledge, familiarity with text type and genre as crucial elements of effective reading (Block, 1992; Grabe, 1991; Dhieb-Henia, 2003).

Reading strategy investigation in L1, L2 and EFL settings suggested that most of the comprehension activities of efficient readers take place at the metacognitive level, as shown by studies on the reading strategies used by successful and less-successful readers (Carrell et al., 1989; Sheorey & Mokhtari, 2001; Wen, 2003). Carrell et al. (1989) suggested that successful use of reading strategies was largely dependent on the awareness of the use of these strategies according to the purpose of the task or the problem to be solved. Therefore, researchers have begun to recognize the significant role of metacognitive awareness or metacognition in reading comprehension.

According to Flavell (1979), metacognition consists of both metacognitive knowledge and metacognitive regulation. Metacognitive knowledge is one's knowledge of the cognitive process in relation to three variables that affect the outcomes of the “cognitive enterprise”, namely, reader variable (beliefs about oneself or others as a cognitive processor), task variable (understanding of the nature and demand of tasks), and strategy variable (perceptions about strategies and strategy use that facilitate learning). While metacognitive knowledge is consciousness-focused, metacognitive regulation is executive in nature, working on the basis of the metacognitive knowledge and referring to people's management of their cognitive processes to ensure realization of learning goals (Zhang & Wu, 2009).

Applied to reading, metacognitive awareness includes readers' conscious awareness of strategic reading processes, of

the reading strategy repertoires, and of their actual utilization of the strategies to maximize text comprehension (Sheorey & Mokhtari, 2001). Carrell et al. (1989) and Auerbach and Paxton (1997) considered metacognitive awareness---planning and consciously executing appropriate actions to achieve a particular goal---to be a critical element of proficient and strategic reading. According to Auerbach and Paxton (1997), such metacognition “entails knowledge of strategies for processing texts, the ability to monitor comprehension, and the ability to adjust strategies as needed” (p 240-41). The consensus view is that strategic awareness and monitoring of the comprehension process are critically important aspects of skilled reading.

Sheorey and Mokhtari (2001) identified ten metacognitive strategies in reading, which are setting purpose for reading, previewing text before reading, checking how text content fits purpose, noting text characteristics, determining what to read, using text features, using context clues, using typographical aids, predicting or guessing text meaning and confirming predictions.

B. Metacognitive Strategy Instruction in Reading

According to Carrell et al. (1989), reading instruction involved either direct instruction of decoding skills or informal teaching of comprehension. Our concern in this research is with the former, that is, relatively direct or explicit instruction in comprehension. Explicit strategy instruction raises learners’ consciousness both of their own strategy use and of the existence of other strategies (Oxford, 1990). In terms of the mode of comprehension instruction, Reuztel et al. (2005) pointed out that much importance has been attached to the instruction of cognitive strategy, which has evolved from the teaching of single cognitive comprehension strategy in isolation to the teaching of multiple “set” or “family” of cognitive comprehension strategies in coordinated use. While metacognitive control, in which the reader consciously directs the reading process, is a particularly important aspect of strategy reading. Therefore, metacognitive strategy instruction appears to be much more critical in nature compared to the instruction of cognitive comprehension strategy.

The Cognitive Academic Language Learning Approach or CALLA (O’Malley and Chamot, 1990) is utilized as the model of strategy instruction in this study. It focuses on explicit instruction in learning strategies. The model is presented through five basic phases: preparation, presentation, practice, evaluation, and expansion. In the Preparation phase, teachers provide advance organizers about the lesson, and students identify what they already know about a topic, using elaboration as a strategy. In the Presentation phase, teachers provide new information to students, using techniques which make their input comprehensible. Teachers can use advance organizers and encourage the use of selective attention, self-monitoring, inferencing, summarizing, and transfer. In the Practice phase, students engage in activities in which they apply learning strategies, often in cooperative small-group sessions. In the Evaluation phase, students reflect on their individual learning and plan to remedy any deficiencies they may have identified. Finally, in the Follow-Up Expansion phase, students are provided with opportunities to relate and apply the new information to their own lives, call on the expertise of their parents and other family members, and compare what they have learned in school with their own cultural experiences (as cited in Takallou, 2011).

Several studies investigated the effect of using different metacognitive strategies in reading in classroom context. For example, Carrell et al. (1989) investigated two types of metacognitive strategy training for ESL reading , which are semantic mapping and the experience-text-relationship (ETR) method, and concluded that metacognitive strategy instruction is effective in enhancing second language reading, and that the effectiveness of one type of training versus another may depend upon the way reading is measured. Dhieb-Henia (2003) reported how metacognitive strategy training influenced upper-intermediate readers’ declarative and procedural knowledge, and their choice and use of strategies while reading research articles in the context of English for specific purpose. The findings showed that such training improved subjects’ familiarity with and proficiency in reading research articles. Takallou (2011) reported the effect of metacognitive strategies instruction on learners’ reading comprehension performance regarding authentic and inauthentic texts in EFL context and the strategies consisted of planning and self-monitoring. The results showed that subjects under the instruction performed much better in the authentic reading comprehension test. To summarize, literature on metacognitive strategy instruction in L2 reading mainly consists of task-based and context-oriented, in which subjects’ proficiency level needs to be taken into account. Despite the importance and necessity of strategy instruction claimed by many scholars, limited empirical research of a set of metacognitive reading strategies instruction in this area was carried out. One area still unclear about reading strategy instruction is to what extent EFL learners’ reading comprehension performance and metacognitive awareness are improved by means of an intensive period of metacognitive strategy instruction.

In China, English is taught as a foreign language. At present, English reading instruction in higher education is undergoing reforms. Teachers of English as a foreign language are encouraged to implement strategy instruction in order to help students cultivate reading strategies and form good reading habits. However, due to various reasons, instruction of reading strategies on tertiary level students, particularly in private university, is still characterized by the traditional comprehension-testing model. The traditional approach used texts primarily for vocabulary and grammar practice. The reading session usually starts with a pre-reading activity, followed by reading the text and finishing the vocabulary exercise and answering the multiple-choice and open-ended questions. It is assumed that students will naturally acquire the target strategies through implicit learning. However, students often complain that they do not see improvement in their reading ability or gain satisfaction from reading. Moreover, relatively little of the metacognitive strategy instruction research has been conducted in EFL reading setting. Considering metacognitive awareness in

reading has been recognized to be critical to successful L2 and EFL reading, the purpose of this study is to find if, and to what extent, metacognitive reading strategy instruction can help EFL learners in private university read more efficiently and rapidly in the school-based material. The general hypothesis of this study is that metacognitive strategy instruction has a different effect compared to the traditional approach on students' performance on reading tests and their metacognitive awareness. The findings of this study are expected to generate some practical implications for EFL reading strategy instruction on tertiary level of lower-intermediate students in China or in other similar contexts where EFL reading strategy instruction is conducted with students from China.

This article reports a metacognitive strategy instruction study of reading in English as a foreign language. It is designed to answer the following two research questions:

1. Does the instruction of metacognitive strategy in reading have any significant effect on EFL learners' reading comprehension performance on school-based material?
2. Does the instruction of metacognitive strategy in reading have any significant effect on EFL learners' metacognitive awareness?

III. METHODOLOGY

A. Participants

The participants of the study were sixty-six freshmen of non-English major at Tianping College (a private college), Suzhou University of Science and Technology. There were thirty-one male and thirty-five female students. They were assigned into two classes and considered at lower-intermediate level of English proficiency according to their scores of English in the national matriculation test. None of the students have participated in the reading strategy training. Consent was sought and obtained from the participants.

B. Design

The study was a quasi-experimental research involving a pre- and post-test design with a sample of two intact classes. One class was randomly assigned as the experimental group (henceforth EG) and the other as the control group (henceforth CG). The two groups were checked in terms of their reading comprehension and metacognitive awareness using reading comprehension test and the revised Survey of Reading Strategy (SORS) (Sheorey and Mokhtari, 2001). The two groups enrolled in the English course which lasted for 16 weeks (one hour and thirty minutes a day, two days a week). The textbook used for this course was *Zooming in: An integrated English Course* and the researcher taught both two classes. Students in the CG were told that the researcher was interested in their approaches to reading over a period of time and how well they could understand a text in English, while all aspects of the strategy instruction were made transparent to the students in the EG. Considering the variable that the researcher expressed an interest in both groups in the natural classroom-based context, the Hawthorne effect would be neutralized or balanced out over a whole semester. The independent variables of the research were metacognitive strategy instruction in reading and the students' ability to read in English. The dependent variables of the research were the students' metacognitive awareness and their reading comprehension performance. To measure the students' ability to read in English and their reading comprehension performance, self-designed reading comprehension tests were used.

C. Instrumentation

There were two instruments for pre- and post-test measurements: Reading comprehension test and Survey of metacognitive strategies.

Reading comprehension test consists of two reading passages with multiple choices questions (hence force MCQs in pre-test and MCQsr in post-test), a translation of the English text into Chinese (hence force TRANS and TRANSr in post-test). Four reading passages (two at each test, involving ten multiple-choice items) were selected from National and Standardized College English Test Band 4 (2006 and 2008 version). Two texts (one at each test) selected from the 21st century involved narrow reading requiring the participants to translate the English text into Chinese. Translation is acknowledged to be a reliable method for evaluating accurate understanding.

The translation text in pre-test consisted of 82 words and presented vocabulary and grammar levels consistent with the learners' current proficiency level, confirmed by the high-school curriculum and the teachers. In post-test, the translation text consisted of 104 words and was a little above the learners' current proficiency level and was confirmed by the teacher and the textbook being used.

In order to assess the reliability of the reading comprehension tests, they were piloted with a sample group of 40 students having characteristics similar to the target group. The researcher invited pilot students' comments on whether they had understood the texts and instructions. Its internal consistency reliability coefficient in pre-test was 0.62 and 0.71 in post-test. The interrater reliability coefficients for translation in pre-test and post-test were 0.57 and 0.63 respectively.

In this study, Sheorey and Mokhtari's (2001) *Survey of Reading Strategies* (SORS) was revised to measure the metacognitive awareness and perceived use of metacognitive reading strategies. Taking into account the participants' EFL proficiency level, the researcher translated the questionnaire into Chinese, which was to guarantee successful data collection and avoid comprehension difficulties that participants might encounter when given the English version. A

professor in Suzhou University, who had a PhD in applied linguistics and was highly proficient in both English and Chinese, was invited to review the translated version for readability and accuracy. After the Chinese version was pilot tested, the overall reliability coefficient was 0.65, which ensured the reliability of this study. The SORS consisted of 28 items, each of which used a five-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (“I never or almost never do this”) to 5 (“I always or almost always do this”). The questionnaire was given before and after strategy instruction.

D. *Metacognitive Strategy Instruction*

O'Malley & Chamot (1990) points out that metacognitive strategies are responsible for controlling other strategies and regards that they have their best effects if students are aware of other strategies that are available to them at the beginning of the course. The experimental group received explicit instruction on metacognitive strategies from the second day of the course. The students in the experimental group received 15 minutes of reading strategy instruction a week for 8 weeks. In each class hour they were taught one metacognitive strategy and they applied it to the required reading. Modifications were made to Sheorey and Mokhtari's (2001) metacognitive reading strategies in *Survey of Reading Strategies* (SORS) and the new version with eight strategies was given.

1. Setting purpose for reading

Having general purposes such as grasping the main idea and specific purposes when reading a text

2. Previewing texts before reading

Previewing the length and organization of the text

3. Inferring meaning

Using available information within the reading texts to guess the meaning of unfamiliar language items, and to predict outcomes

4. Using background information

Using knowledge gained from personal experience in the real world or in academic situations such as from classroom

5. Using text features and typographical aids

Making use of text features such as tables and typographical aids such as italics

6. Distinguishing known information from new information

Distinguishing between information that I already know and new information

7. Deciding on the text difficulty

Noting how hard or easy a text is to read

8. Predicting or guessing text meaning

Making use of the strategies mentioned above to predict or guess text meaning

The model of strategy instruction utilized in this study is the Cognitive Academic Language Learning Approach, or CALLA (ibid.), which focuses on explicit instruction in learning strategies.

E. *Data Collection and Analysis*

The data were collected from reading comprehension test and questionnaire. The researcher analyzed the data using descriptive statistical procedures as well as independent samples *t*-tests to examine whether significant differences existed between the two groups with respect to their reading comprehension performance and reported metacognitive awareness of reading strategy. A significance level of .05 was set for pre-test and at a more rigorous .01 for post-test because of the quasi-experimental and longitudinal nature of the study. Statistical Package for the Social Science (SPSS) version 12.0 for personal computers was used.

Regarding the scoring of reading comprehension test (two reading passages, a translation of text into Chinese), ten points were awarded for two reading passages with ten multiple-choice questions (one point for each question) both in pre-test and post-test. Twelve points were awarded for translation in pre-test and eighteen points for translation in post-test, three points for each sentence. Points were given half-correct (1.5 for 3-point sentences) and one-thirdly corrected translated sentences (1 for 3-point). Translation that was less than one-third correct was awarded zero point on the basis that incomplete information signified no comprehension. The reading comprehension test has a total score of 22 in pre-test and 28 in post-test. To ensure scoring objectivity, each translation work was evaluated by the researcher and her colleague.

The adapted SORS was administered at the beginning and the end of strategy instruction program. The students were informed of the purpose of the survey and of the fact that there was no right or wrong answers, and asked to express their honest opinion.

IV. RESULTS

A. *Research Question 1*

The first research question was concerned with whether metacognitive strategy instruction in reading would result in better reading comprehension performance. Descriptive statistics are provided in table 1 for pretest and posttest.

TABLE 1
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS FOR EG AND CG IN PRETEST AND POSTTEST

	Group	N	Mean	Std.	
				Deviation	Error Mean
Pretest	EG	36	8.222	3.757	.626
	CG	30	8.366	3.350	.611
Posttest	EG	36	16.250	3.665	.610
	CG	30	17.066	4.857	.886

Independent samples Test for EG and CG was carried out in pretest and posttest with instruction as the independent variable. No significant differences were found in both tests: Pretest, $F=.663, p=.419$; and Posttest, $F=2.040, p=.158$. Therefore, the two groups did not differ after the metacognitive strategy instruction in reading.

TABLE 2
INDEPENDENT SAMPLES TEST FOR EG AND CG IN PRETEST AND POSTTEST

	Levene's Test		t-test				
	F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Diff.	Std. Error Diff.
Pretest	.663	.419	-.163	64	.871	-.144	.884
Posttest	2.040	.158	-.778	64	.440	-.816	1.050

B. Research Question 2

The second research question was concerned with whether metacognitive strategy instruction in reading would enhance EFL learners' metacognitive awareness. Independent samples test was carried out. Curiously enough, no significant differences were found between two groups in their reported metacognitive strategies.

TABLE 3
INDEPENDENT SAMPLES TEST FOR EG AND CG IN THEIR REPORTED METACOGNITIVE STRATEGIES USES

	Levene's Test		t-test				
	F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Diff.	Std. Error Diff.
MS1	1.056	.308	-2.365	64	.021	-.488	.206
MS2	.743	.392	.483	64	.631	.100	.206
MS3	2.443	.123	-.246	64	.807	-.066	.271
MS4	1.778	.187	1.498	64	.139	.388	.259
MS5	.254	.616	.970	64	.336	.255	.263
MS6	2.250	.138	-.229	64	.820	-.055	.243
MS7	.012	.914	-.325	64	.746	-.083	.256
MS8	.207	.651	-1.144	64	.257	-.272	.237
MS1r	3.165	.080	-.702	64	.485	-.172	.245
MS2r	8.323	.052	.220	64	.826	.044	.201
MS3r	1.403	.241	-.155	64	.877	-.033	.215
MS4r	.028	.868	.467	64	.642	.111	.238
MS5r	.586	.447	1.141	64	.258	.305	.267
MS6r	10.645	.059	-.862	64	.392	-.161	.186
MS7r	1.223	.273	-2.279	64	.026	-.472	.207
MS8r	.582	.448	-.459	64	.648	-.077	.169

V. DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

Though as Anderson (2002) states that the use of metacognitive strategies ignites one's thinking and can lead to higher learning and better performance and strategy research suggests that less competent learners are able to improve their skills through strategy instruction, the results of the experimental study do not coincide with the established research findings. EG and CG do not display any significant differences before and after instruction both in reading comprehension test and their reported metacognitive strategies uses.

The instruction program was conceptualized as low input in that only about 15 minutes were allocated to the reading strategy instruction for 8 weeks. Whether low input leads to no significant gains for EG awaits further research. To the end, face-to-face interviews were conducted with 6 participants in EG. The participants in this study are college students in private university in China. One point they expressed in common is that what has been taught in the instruction program is taken for granted for they have been instructed to do so since they were elementary school students. Therefore, they do not appreciate the reasons why such strategies are useful and do not show interest or enthusiasm in the instruction.

It is commonly accepted that metacognitive strategy instruction appears to be much more critical in nature compared to the instruction of cognitive comprehension strategy. Therefore, it is necessary to compare the effectiveness in terms of cognitive strategy instruction and metacognitive strategy instruction in reading with the same participants, which will be the next research topic.

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A Comparative Study of Teacher Education in Iran and the UK

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Abstract—This paper briefly compares teacher education in the UK system with that of Iran's. It identifies the main differences, basically of policy and practice, in that teacher education has always been centralized in Iran, whereas it had once been more or less de-centralized in the UK. However, teacher education is now being centralized in the UK, despite all the disagreements and dissatisfaction amongst the educators and teacher trainers. It seems that this new shift is unjustified so may result in non-professionalisation and politically inappropriate intervention as is indicated by Gilroy et al (1991-1995). The article will deal mainly with Iranian teacher education. It will conclude with an intensive of comparison that will clarify the essential different issues regarding teacher education in the two systems which is followed by some experiential suggestions and conclusions.

Index Terms—teacher education, Iran, UK, assessment

I. INTRODUCTION

It will be difficult to identify or deal with every single influential element in teacher education, so we will consider the main issues, the 'theory and practice'. A critical literature review of the teacher education of the two systems shows that there are positive and applicable factors in the UK system in the 1960s that can be adjusted and applied to Iranian teacher education. On the other hand, the failure of the centralized system in Iran can be a useful lesson for the recent shift of education in the UK. Nevertheless, what is ignored more than anything else in Iranian teacher education is the practice of teaching. This is basic need of the teacher trainees and requires a balance between theory and practice, as it has been soundly provided in the UK system so far. In making such a balance needs to identify the related issues of the teacher education in Iran as is detailed below.

A. *Teacher Education in the UK in Brief*

Teacher training in the UK began in 1798 in Southward, a slum district of London. Gilroy (1996) wrote in fact, that initially there was no formal teacher education and the first pupil-teachers were the older students of the class. In 1846 the national pupil teacher programme began with intelligent pupils aged thirteen and above as apprentices trained and practiced for five years. These apprentices were taught only by a schoolmaster for 1.5 hour's daily instruction out of school hours and teaching were examined by Her Majesty's InspectorMIs. In 1849 the number of female pupil teachers was doubles that of males. This was due to lower wages of the female pupil teachers. Stones' (1992) views on teacher education as: The view of teaching as transmission of knowledge sees teaching as talking; as explaining; as delivering. It accept as proof of learning, reciting, answering questions by verbalizing, whether orally or in writing, and giving back to the teacher what the teacher dispensed earlier. In 1862 the Revised Code Scheme was introduced which was based on results' system. Coppock (1997) has given a picture of the social situation of the apprentices that is interesting to mention:

“At a time when pupil teachers began to predominate at training colleges it is likely to have been the case that the social background of those admitted was predominately that of the lower middle class (e.g. daughters of shopkeepers, clerks, commercial travelers, etc.) or, at the very least, from the respectable working class. ...From its inception, the pupil teacher scheme laid down requirements, about basic age and good health criteria, which had to be satisfied by all candidates. The school managers had to certify the moral character of the candidates and their families, with attention directed at home conditions. This would suggest that working-class pupil teachers had to come from respectable homes.”

Coppock further pointed out that in 1881 Pupil Teacher Centers were set up that pupil teachers attended for training. To the writer the teaching of apprentices was without life and point and, in fact, they were in charge of the lower grades. The pupil-teachers who passed the exams set by HMIs could sit for a three-year college scholarship. At the same time, there were many pupil teachers with no certificate of any kind. More than one-third of the apprentices were female. During this period only a small number of these pupil-teachers were accepted into religious colleges for a certificate and qualification. Formal teacher education has had two kinds of training: Initial teacher education and In-service training.

Teacher education and training include both theoretical and practical dimensions. Both of these are vital to training, which needs to be completed thoroughly and professionally.

In this regard Curle (1963) argued for the importance of teacher education as being: One of the nerve centers of the educational system. More can be done to raise standards of education at less cost through teacher training. But in the under-developed countries relatively little attention has been paid to this urgent task. Lack of a cadre of trained teachers has lowered university entrance standards, has crammed universities with students unable to follow the courses or attain their degrees.

However, some may deem that pedagogical knowledge is considered as a minor factor of improved teaching. More knowledge about teaching practice can increase teachers' initial teaching ability. The Robbins Committee recommended a B. Ed. degree for elevating teachers' qualification, validated by university education departments. This system, in which universities were involved in teacher training, had in fact many advantages such as:

1. To elevate teacher's profession;
2. To satisfy teacher education graduates;
3. To encourage teaching staffs in the colleges and polytechnics by promoting their teaching level and certificate validation;
4. To help Departments of Education in universities to establish close relationships with colleges;
5. To broaden and strengthen the course content.

Coppock further pointed out that toward the end of eighteenth century the Society of Friends in England established the Welsh Circulating Schools and a number of other institutions. At that time in those schools the emphasis was on content rather than method. There were about 30 colleges and polytechnics and 21 universities by 1963. These institutions were called on to collaborate at this time. Consequently, universities applied their quality teaching methods and research work in order to transfer the excellence of teaching styles in their classrooms.

Gosden (1989) argued that the certificated teacher at the time of the Butler Act had to take two years training preferably in grammar school or single-sex colleges rather than in higher education. But emphasis on practice by Wilkin (1996) that training had shifted to more practice and students spent more time in schools. Heward (1993) discussed that there were strong battles among the related authors on this regard.

The relationship between colleges and universities continued until the early 1990s. By this time the government's intervention had created a situation where they had central control of teacher education teachers trained in colleges, polytechnics, and universities and in school-based schedules. Trainees normally taught, observed and undertook activities with pupils or visited special educational development or facilities in-groups. Of course, teaching practice was of most concern to the students and their tutors. However, a major change in the UK teacher education began in 1976 and it still continues by centralizing teacher education in which the government is wresting power and training from universities and higher institutes and leaving it to schools and probably placing teacher education at risk. This was the consequence of the paper, *Teaching Quality*, which criticized the quality of teacher education teaching. Gilroy (1991) argued that in 1984, as a result of the report, the government created the Council for the Accreditation of Teacher Education (CATE). Another attack came from the Secretary of State's speech in January 1992 which in effect, supported the snipping of the "New Right" on teaching subject and materials.

Based on the context, self-evaluation can provide a strong basis for professional development for those concerned but is usually limited in its wider significance. Inspection provides a valuable basis for comparison within, and review across, whole systems but tends to be less flexible and can be less sensitive to particular contexts.

It may be important to consider developments at three levels, those of the individual practitioner, either pupil or teacher; the institution and the national system.

B. Teacher Education in Iran

Teacher education and training in Iran began nearly eight decades ago. The 'Central Teacher Training school' with very limited courses in pedagogical principles, philosophy of education and logic was established in 1920. 9 years later the school changed its name to 'Advanced Teacher Training School' and in 1970 the school changed again to 'Teacher Training University' and moved to its current location, Saadi Street in Tehran. The new university began its function under the Ministry of Science and Higher Education devolved from the Ministry of Education. At this time the number of courses also increased to: intermediate pedagogical principles, history of education, educational psychology as well as chemistry, physics, natural sciences and general psychology. Teacher education in Iran subsumes initial teacher education, which embodies the main part of the teacher education program, and in-service training, which is a limited scheme. There are two separate centers for teacher education: teacher training universities, colleges and higher institutions for teachers to teach at schools. These institutions educate teachers in three echelons for:

1. Elementary level, in which pupils start at age seven as first year school student and study for five years.
2. Second level is guidance, which is a three-year course, followed after succeeding the elementary years.
3. Level three is high school or secondary education, which is four years (pre-university included).

At present there are 8 universities and 12 training colleges and training institutions located in all big cities and some small ones as well. These institutions award either Higher Diploma (H & D) or BA/B.Sc. to their graduates. The normal H & D course is two years with some 36 units or 12 courses and BA/B.Sc. four years with about 140 units. Each course normally is 3 and some 2 units (credits). The students usually reside in dormitory and residential halls during their study

(as stated by the university prospectus, 1997).

There is only one university, the University of Tarbiat Modarres (Daneshgah Tarbiat Modarres, DTM) for university teacher training established after the Islamic Revolution and this is located in Tehran. The graduates from this university are awarded MA/M.Sc. or Ph.D. All training universities, colleges and other institutions are public and there are no private institutions for this purpose. The students studying in training centers do not have to pay tuition or any other fees, but sign agreements to work as teachers wherever needed after their graduation. The students are also paid an allowance or given loans to help their personal needs during the study. An MA/M.Sc. normally takes three to four years and Ph.D. between three to seven years in DTM.

Patrick et al (1982) have reported the percentages of graduate qualifications of a first degree, masters and doctorate.

English student teachers are trained for almost all disciplines. Therefore, there are a large variety of courses and areas to study and is not possible to list all of them here. English language student teachers are my main targets to focus on. The reason for this option was that English teachers have had difficulties in their classes, especially in the use of English language.

The university graduates teach either in the Faculty of Letters and Humanities to teach English students only (English language and literature or linguistics) along with teaching the ESP in other Faculties. The other place to teach English is in language centers, which are located in the universities. These centers are not always separate and independent as in some universities they are combined with the Faculty of Letters and Humanities. English instructors at the centers teach two types of English: ESL as English general language or ESP to students of various disciplines, except English. There is of course in-service training for teachers of schools, but not for university instructors.

Teacher education concerns professional skills, knowledge and adaptability of teachers. The process of teacher education promotes trainees' personal practical knowledge and skills, but the emphasis is on practical preparation in handling a class. An effective teacher education program should include basic qualifications, that is, having credits both in professional educational subjects such as principles of education, pedagogical psychology, teaching methods and teaching practice; and in the subject to be taught. Teacher training in Iran can be pre-service programs for student teachers or in-service programs for untrained current ones under qualified trainers' supervision.

In fact, the political and social change affected the students' needs and anticipations. Accordingly, The 1988 Education Act states: The curriculum for a maintained school satisfies the requirements if it is a balanced and body based curriculum which: A) promotes the spiritual, moral, cultural, mental and physical development of pupils at the school and of society; and B) prepares such pupils for opportunities, responsibilities and experiments of adult life (Education Reform Act 1988, section 1, Para.2).

According to Goodson (1997) teacher education courses were: Grundy and Hatton (1995) report a critical view of recent changes in teacher education that there is no picture of the teacher as an intellectual element in ethical and knowledge transformation, or in the fostering of democracy, social justice and order.

C. *Background to University Teacher training: Tarbiat Modarres University*

This University was founded under the guidance of the Islamic Revolution Leader (late Imam Khomeini) and the High Council of Cultural Revolution in 1982. Later, in 1983 the University was thoroughly approved by the Ministry of Culture and Higher Education.

The University of Tarbiat Modarres commenced with the enrollment of 123 students with 11 majors in Humanities and later expanded to other areas such as Agriculture, Art, Engineering, Medical Science and Natural Resources. At present, there, are some 2,670 students studying in 80 Master degree programs and about 30 in Ph.D.) programs. The University has planned to provide facilities for research schemes in schools and with outside institutions and industries to develop research independence. It is also providing opportunities to improve relations with other national and intentional higher education institutions; to send Iranian students to study in foreign countries as well as preparing higher education research centers.

The chief aim of the University is to prepare its students to graduate with the ability to instruct at any Iranian university or higher education institute. It seems necessary to mention here that there are of course other universities and higher institutions that train teachers for schools; elementary, guidance, a three-year study between elementary and high school; and high schools. Only the most eligible candidates are chosen through a selection process. Candidates for master's programs must be under 35 years of age and hold a bachelor's degree certified by the Ministry of Culture and Higher Education, and for the Ph.D. must be under 40 and holding a certified master's degree. There is an oral examination as well as an interview after a written exam, in which the candidates are required to fulfill certain conditions. Both degrees' programs are of course work and research. The master's programs include 13 general credits, 32-38 core subject credits (each credit involves 17 hours per semester) and 4 to 8 credits of research to a total of approximately 2.5 years. After the completion of the required courses and research, the students defend their theses in the presence of a formal Evaluation committee. The Ph.D. students take 12-30 core subject credits and two years of research work. These students are also required to publish at least two articles concerning their theses. This degree normally takes 4 years full-time. Students are required to take 13 course credits in Education, Teaching Methods, Logic and Methodology, and Islamic Ideology. This combination of study provides the students with the opportunities to expand their intellectual capacities and broaden their perspectives in teaching. Finally, it allows them to specialize in an area in which they will be responsible for teaching in the future. The students are presently accommodated within the

campus. Education at university level needs to be more practical to make a balance between theory and practice in Iran. This is what is expected in Iranian universities so as to enable the graduates to develop their intellectual power and practice what they learn.

Having introduced some critical issues of teacher development in Iran, the viewpoints of a few writers such as Brumfit (1986) and Widdowson (1982) on ESL/ESP have been identified encouraging and applicable to Iranian teacher training. There are some, related comparative arguments to highlight the issues.

In a study conducted in Scotland showed that since 1998 (DfEE, 1998a) routes of entry into the English teacher workforce became even more varied in nature, with continuing expansion of employment based routes (qualifying teachers are still required to pass skills based tests) – the recent Select Committee Report on the training of teachers suggests 15% of new teachers now take this path (House of Commons, 2010).

The *Becoming a Teacher* (BaT) project (2003–2009) examined experiences of initial teacher training, induction and early professional development of entrants to the profession via university-based, employment-based and school-based routes in England.

II. PROBLEM

The overall aim of this paper is to understand the contribution that teacher education can make to the quality and effectiveness of the educational experience and wider personal development of the learners, drawing on effective practice.

The main problem with Iranian teacher training is its centralization and lack of practice in the English language and the link with theoretical, coursework accomplished by student teachers. Teacher students need to be involved with a number of practicing classes during their training and before their real class handling which needs to match theory and practice or conception and execution. Obviously, any prescribed programs usually frustrate the professionals by lowering their self-esteem. Teachers with low esteem would have difficulties in transferring knowledge, values and more than that may not behave appropriately as expected by the society. Due to not having a training center for university teacher training in the previous regime the majority of the Iranian English teachers in Iranian universities have not received any teacher training, unlike the training given to teachers in the UK system. In fact, we do not have many teacher educators and teacher trainers for university student teachers. English teachers urgently need specialized and professional training for their expected and successful teaching methods with appropriate techniques, if successful teaching/learning is expected. Training teachers will be more effective if these teachers are exposed to an English environment even for a short period after their graduation.

One of the main problems with teacher education in Iran is that many of its courses are still learned theoretically so the practice aspect of it needs more time and allocations. The reason is that teaching is a very complex issue. Teaching is complex, because it involves many of the factors that affect teachers' teaching; factors such as the emotional, economical, cultural, social and, of course, political condition of teachers' life. Moreover, teachers have the important responsibility, educating the generation, those who will run the society in future.

Most Iranian English teachers are not professionally self-assured, or independent, and many of these teachers have no peace of mind and feel insecure in their classroom, especially when they have students who have been abroad and are fluent in speaking English. This is due to the lack of training. These English teachers who lack the abilities to use, an effective applied approach inevitably follow the teacher's guidelines, if any, and have no ability in most cases to go further or deviate from them. Therefore, they cannot be flexible in the use and selection of their teaching style or materials for English classes. Consequently, teacher training is an essential factor in particular when training. Therefore, the process of education promotes teachers' personal practical knowledge.

III. RECOMMENDATIONS

In general, Iranian English teachers have two basic needs in training:

- a) The art of teaching and operating a classroom handling English students with particular characteristics, such as having a prior knowledge of specific English and background of professional matter to use the learned language themselves and teach the English language students how to use it;
- b) The need to learn the content meaning of English (material knowledge).

Accordingly, Iranian English teachers possibly need guidance for both 'a' and 'b' needs mentioned above to follow procedures in the process of teaching. Not all teachers and teaching would have one unique guide to act accordingly. Each particular classroom situation demands a special need, which may be fairly different from other ones. For example, English classes in Iran require a special type of English that meets their subject and/or English use opportunity in accord with the Iranian culture and societal customs. Each particular area of teaching in each discipline requires a specific guidance flexible for an eclectic model. This is true of English teachers; that is, they need to be flexible. The circumstances of unqualified and uncoordinated intervention imposed by the UK government and its agents has been so unwelcome that it has been called 'attacks', 'rape', 'savage' and 'provocative'. Nevertheless, if teacher education is a national priority then it should insist it be brought to the attention of both government and public. This can be achieved by employing the resources and expertise of all involved in teacher education.

The university based elements of the course can be as follows:

- 1) Lesson planning, including the selection of content;
- 2) Motivating English students of different abilities;
- 3) Selecting and creating appropriate resources for learning;
- 4) Introducing the new techniques of teaching such as lesson analysis;
- 5) Ensuring equality of opportunity for both girls and boys;
- 6) Matching work to the capabilities of the students;
- 7) Teaching the whole assigned topic;
- 8) Gathering feedback on the students' progress.

The purpose of the course is to develop the English student teacher to be able to: understand the ways in which their potential can be developed. Accordingly, there are certain inter-related components of the course:

- a) Curriculum work;
- b) Understanding classrooms and universities;
- c) Practical work in university classes.

All English teachers in Iran need to know and strive to be an efficient teacher and know more than just what is in the textbook. All this indicates the urgency of training for the majority of these teachers. Great changes need to be focused on teaching/learning attitude towards routine and technical English use for the meaning of subject matter such as the meaning of specific symbols, expressions, and relevant formulae. To this end, an appropriate approach to teaching as well as the teacher student relationship seems necessary, because this prepares the teacher to be a motivator, assured, patient, frank and friendly and to feel sympathy towards students.

There was a general feeling that students should be introduced to various theoretical principles underlying the practice. An English tutor, for example, introduced different models of English teaching as well as his own. This approach to teaching indeed provided options for students to deal with the models that suit their class situation and has been very helpful. The view states that teaching practice should be considered as the main criterion accepted by the majority of teachers more than any other subject especially in languages. It seems necessary to establish a co-operative partnership between the universities and schools. A collaborative model introduced by some writers seems rational and applicable. The implementation of the model should result in all teacher practices being rational and teachers acting professionally. The implementation procedure can be through the acquisition of theories for conceptual framework application, observation, practice and discussing various teaching approaches.

Nevertheless, there is a generally accepted agreement that the ultimate criteria for evaluation of a teacher are the effects of the teaching behavior on the performance of the students, as discussed by Furlong et al.(1996). Theory can also be strengthened for new school based training to maintain and establish a collaborative and strong theoretical function. Goodson (1997) puts more emphasis on this in relation with practice by citing:

“Any profession whose essential theoretical and practical knowledge does not have a high place in universities and other institutions of higher education must count itself deprived and, in the long run, be diminished in status. “

He, however, puts more emphasis on theory than practice and argues that the attachment to theory can change the status and importance of teaching as a profession. Teaching and Learning Research Program study ‘Learning to Learn’ by Pedder et al (2005) found that there were opportunities for considerable teacher learning to take place in the classroom context, through, for example applying research, collaborating with colleagues, or consulting with pupils. They viewed such learning as being of high potential value. However it is also viewed as relatively high risk, and some teachers appear to be less comfortable with such approaches.

IV. A CONCISE COMPARISON OF TEACHER EDUCATION IN THE UK AND IRAN

<i>IRAN</i>	<i>UK</i>
Poor Literature	Rich Literature
Rather short history - some seven decades	Long history - some two centuries
Has always been public only	Has always been public and private
Has been taught by H.E.Is only for B Ed higher institutions and Higher Diploma (H & D) by under the Ministry of Education	Has been taught by H.E.Is and schools
Public service, no contract	Has been taught on contract
Almost all theoretical theory and practice	There has always been a blend of theory and practice.
There has never been a balance between theory and practice theory d practice	There has been a balance between theory and practice
Full prescribed programs	Less prescribed by government
No political intervention	Government political intervention
Full prescribed program designed by H.E.Is or by teacher trainers of the Ministry of Education	Teachers and teacher educators have opportunities for course content selection
Almost all courses are obligatory - only a few optional and individual activities	Student teachers have opportunity to select courses for individual activities
Teacher educators have had no collaborative task with teachers	Teacher educators have had collaboration task with school teachers with school teachers
Teacher educators have nothing to do with schools	Teacher educators visit schools
Neither teacher educators nor teachers have the opportunity to express their views and criticize the criticize overtly	Teacher educators and teachers have the opportunity to express their views and criticize the criticize overtly
Has always been centralized	Is moving toward centralization
No conflict overtly between teaching staff	There has always been conflict between government and teaching and government staff
Increasing funding	Drastic cuts in funding
Progressing and optimistic	Unknown future, mostly provocative, pessimistic

Note: Teacher education in Iran has two divisions:

1. Nursery, elementary, guidance and high school teacher education;
2. University teacher education for university teachers which is accomplished in the only university teacher training, DTM.for MA/MSc or Ph.D.

V. CONCLUSION

The examination of teacher education in the UK and Iran showed that there are more differences than similarities, so as you may find it easier to entitle a contrast rather than a 'comparison'. In fact, a reflective conclusion captures some sense of the differences in the two societies whose teacher education system were examined in the previous two chapters. The contrasts illuminate the analysis of the relationships between H.E.Is, schools, government and local authorities. In England teacher education has been based on the reports by governmental agencies or HMIs in form of committees and commissions, whereas the real task, training the teachers has been carried out by other groups directly involved with teachers and teacher educators. This is indeed completely different from teacher training in Iran. There are also differences in the basic characteristics of the teaching force and of the schools where teachers have been taught and trained. There is an overt distinction between the institutions providing academic education with more practical tasks, though both systems shared a common purpose, teaching student teachers. There has been a relationship between UK H.E.Is and schools in the form of collaboration and integration for teaching material assimilation in English while there has never been such collaboration or relationship in Iran. There has also been a balance between theory and practice in England and more emphasis on practice. This is quite lacking in Iran, that is, there is no balance between theory and practice. In fact, there is for more theory than practice. There is much more flexibility of courses in England than is in Iran. The common point is that both systems have been employing their social, cultural and, more importantly the political features in teacher education, though not in the same way. The basic common point is that both systems have been educating teachers for their nations.

The study of teacher education in UK and Iran and their comparison/contrast provided us a sound knowledge and useful insights. First of all, we have learned how different the systems are and second; how they can benefit from each other's experiences. Teacher education in all was planned chiefly for the improvement of classroom practice. As we found, teacher education in Iran badly needs to balance theory and practice. That is, much more practice is needed. Therefore, what is now required is an investigation into the teaching methods used in the two systems in the same way as teacher education for the convention of positive and applicable teaching strategies mainly from the English system to the Iranian system.

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From Conflicts to Integration: An Empirical Study on Chinese EFL Learners' Construction of Bilingual Identities

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Abstract—By adopting both quantitative and qualitative methods, this paper, with the types of bilingual identities (Yongwei B & Yihong G, 2006) serving as the framework, examines the characteristics of Chinese college English learners' bilingual identity changes. It is found that instrumental bilingual identity penetrates through L2 learning process, additive and productive bilingual identity are dominant types among L2 English learners; the bilingual identity construction of EFL learners may assume the following process: instrumental bilingual identity, subtractive and split bilingual identity, additive and productive bilingual identity. The study indicates the conflicts and integration of bilingual identities experienced by L2 English learners in China.

Index Terms— English learning, bilingual identities, identity construction, conflict, integration

I. INTRODUCTION

Language is not only a tool for communication, but also an embodiment of a culture. Therefore, the acquisition of a second language which includes its cultural knowledge will make the learners' cultural identity undergo significant changes. To be specific, learners may reevaluate and reorientate their cultural values, group identity, and communication styles, hence the study on language learners' cultural identity changes is of high practical value. Then questions arise as: what are the characteristics of EFL learners' changes in bilingual identity which includes language identity and cultural identity? What's the relationship between language learning and identity construction? Language learners' bilingual identity changes penetrate the whole process of language learning, so probes into these questions will facilitate our understanding of the development of learners' cognitive ability and cultural identity, which may provide implication for more rational and comprehensive practices on foreign language teaching.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

Theoretically, Lambert (1972; quoted in Yihong G, 2004) proposed two types of bilingualism, i.e., subtractive and additive bilingual identity. Subtractive bilingual identity refers to that learners' native language and culture identities are gradually replaced by the second language and culture, while additive bilingual identity means learners acquire a new language and culture while remaining their native language and culture identities. Most researchers regarded additive bilingualism as ideal although Schumann and others (1978; quoted in Yihong G, 2004) advocated the subtractive bilingualism which is characterized as complete acculturation. In 2001, Chinese scholar Yihong Gao put forward a term as productive bilingualism, which means both native and target language/culture are promoted in second language learners when they interact with each other, thus improving learners' ability in overall cognition, affect and communication. The difference between productive and additive bilingualism lies in that the former emphasizes the mutual enhancement between native language/culture and target ones, while the latter indicates the two languages/cultures have their respective functions in different settings without interaction. Therefore, productive bilingualism is generally viewed as a more ideal type for bilingualism.

Empirically, many studies on Chinese EFL learners' cultural identity changes have been made from various perspectives. Zhanzi L (2007) examined English learners' autobiographical accounts of cross-cultural experiences by adopting a discourse analysis approach. The results revealed identity conflicts and changes experienced by learners. The research conducted by Yuxin R (2008) suggested learners always play double (or multiple) roles in cross-cultural communication, while different roles are salient in different situations. Based on a large scale of quantitative investigation, Yihong G et al (2003) together with some other scholars found the productive bilingualism is "not limited to the best EFL learners" but presented in common learners; in addition, productive and additive bilingualism are dominant among college students, while subtractive and split bilingualism also exist; furthermore, the productive bilingualism may positively correlated with learners' language proficiency. By examining qualitative data in the learners' written self-reports, Yongwei B & Yihong G, (2006) explored the learners' attitudes (affect, appreciation and

judgment) towards English study and culture learning. It was found that learners may follow the process from subtractive bilingualism to productive bilingualism, which demonstrates learners' tolerance of cultural differences and the integration of their bilingual identities.

All the above theoretical analysis and empirical studies have provided implication for the present research on EFL learners' dynamic construction of bilingual identities in China. Most of them, however, fall into either quantitative or qualitative paradigm. With bilingual types (Yongwei B & Yihong G, 2006) serving as the theoretical framework, the present study, by adopting both quantitative and qualitative methods, will explore the EFL learners' developmental patterns of bilingual identities which include their language and culture attitude. The implication for foreign language teaching will also be probed.

III. RESEARCH QUESTIONS

The present study will explore Chinese EFL learners' developmental patterns of bilingual identities across different levels of proficiency. To be specific, there are two questions as follows:

1. What is the general characteristics of Chinese EFL learners' bilingual identities with bilingual types (Yongwei B & Yihong G, 2006) serving as the analytical framework?
2. What kind of developmental pattern do EFL learners display in terms of different levels of proficiency?

IV. METHODOLOGY

A. Participants

A total number of 105 students from different grades in Tourism and Culture College took part in this study. With English proficiency test in China (i.e., CET4 and TEM4) functioning as the measurement, the students were classified into three groups, i.e., 32 low-proficiency learners who haven't passed CET4, 31 intermediate learners who have passed CET4, and 42 high-proficiency learners who have passed TEM4. Their age ranged between 18 and 22. Low-proficiency learners and intermediate learners were all graduate students of different majors, while high-proficiency learners were from English majors. The sample consisted of both male and female students.

B. Instrumentation

Two kinds of research paradigms were used the present study, in which a questionnaire was used to collect quantitative data, while learners' autobiographical accounts provided qualitative material.

1. Questionnaire

The questionnaire consists of thirty-nine questions that are divided into two sections: a demographic section and questionnaire to investigate learners' cultural identity changes (see appendix). The questionnaire was developed based on Yongwei B & Yihong G's theoretical framework of bilingual types and Yihong G's survey of cultural identities, so as to ensure its reliability and validity. Five types of bilingual identities, in which seven situational statements were designed for each type, were included in the survey to test participants' attitude towards English study and culture learning (see table 1). So there are totally thirty-five items of five-point Likert-type scale ranging from strongly disagree to strongly agree for assessing the degree of learners' agreement with the given option. The higher score a participant assesses in a certain sentence, the more he/she agrees on the statement.

TABLE 1.
FIVE BILINGUAL TYPES AS VARIABLES

Variables	Meaning of variables	Operational statements of variables	Items in the questionnaire
Instrumental bilingual identity	Learners regard English language as a tool to achieve certain goals in their life.	<i>English for me is a stepping-stone to get a job.</i>	3,6,11,22,29,32,34
Subtractive bilingual identity	Learners' native language and cultural concepts are gradually replaced by the foreign ones.	<i>I found my communication styles and behaviors were a little westernized after learning English for many years.</i>	1,8,10,13,16,18,28
Split bilingual identity	Learners experience contradiction and conflicts between their native language/culture and the target ones.	<i>I found traditional Chinese concepts often conflict with English concepts, which makes me confused and torturous.</i>	5,9,15,24,27,31,35
Additive bilingual identity	Learners have two sets of languages/cultural concepts, with each used in its specific cultural situation.	<i>In English setting, I am very confident to show myself. While in Chinese situations, I try to be a modest person as required by Chinese culture.</i>	2,7,12,14,21,23,25
Productive bilingual identity	Learners' two languages/ cultural concepts were promoted mutually.	<i>I found I gain better understanding of my native language and culture due to cross-cultural comparison.</i>	4,17,19,20,26,30,33

2. Interview

The material of learners' autobiographical accounts were required to present two topics as follows: 1. *Please describe the cultural difference between Chinese and English in your English learning, and make a comparison to state their influence in your concepts and life.* 2. *What has foreign / second language learning meant to you? Describe your personal experience in terms of pains, gains, and changes. On this path of learning, where are you heading for?* The

two researchers conducted thematic analysis for all the material.

C. Data Collection and Analysis

The data of this study were collected in the normal class time. The participants were required to finish all the questions earnestly and truthfully, so all the questionnaire papers collected were valid. The items were entered into SPSS program for windows, version 22.0. Then descriptive statistics were used to determine the mean and standard deviation in questionnaires. Multi-ANOVA was run to test whether learners of different proficiency demonstrate different options in bilingual identities.

As for the material of learners' autobiographical accounts of English study and culture learning, the two researchers analyzed them thematically and dug out the information related to the research topic. All the information were classified in terms of bilingual types, thus providing further evidence and explanation for quantitative data.

V. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

A. Quantitative Data: Results from Questionnaire

1. Frequency of five types of bilingual identities among subjects

In the questionnaire, there are seven items for every type of bilingual identity, thus the total score for one type for each subject is thirty-five points. Descriptive statistics (see table 2) clearly show that the bilingual type with the highest score is instrumental bilingual type ($M=26.89$), which indicates the significance of English as a tool in learners' personal development in modern society of China. The means for both additive ($M=24.59$) and productive ($M=24.22$) bilingual identities are beyond the critical value 21, suggesting that the subjects gain a new understanding of the target culture while remaining their native identity, based on which their two bilingual identities have improved each other in an interactive way, demonstrating a positive and acquisitive change. The means for subtractive and split identities are 17.85 and 17.31 respectively, which illustrate the conflicts and contradiction experienced by EFL learners. However, their means are below critical value, which means such kinds of conflicts are not common among learners.

TABLE 2.
FREQUENCY OF FIVE TYPES OF BILINGUAL IDENTITIES AMONG SUBJECTS

	instrumental	subtractive	split	additive	productive
mean	26.89	17.85	17.31	24.59	24.22
Std. Deviation	3.02	2.68	2.43	2.24	3.36

2. Developmental pattern of bilingual identities across different levels of proficiency

As shown in table 3, there is significant difference in mean scores of different groups, which shows the developmental pattern of their bilingual identities. In terms of instrumental bilingual identity, the respective means from high-proficiency to low-proficiency groups are 25.78, 26.09, 28.79, following a rising trend. And the difference of means between high-proficiency group and intermediate group, between intermediate group and low-proficiency group has reached significant level ($P=.037^*$, $P=.036^*$). It is suggested that low-proficiency learners may concern more about the instrumental function of the foreign language than the cultural function, for example, to get high scores in exam, to get a certificate, to get information and to be helpful for self-promotion, etc. Interestingly, the intermediate group gets the highest mean ($M_{\text{subtractive}}=18.87$, $M_{\text{split}}=18.24$) in subtractive and split bilingual identities, and it has significant difference ($P=.048^*$) from the low-proficiency group. The reason for such phenomenon may be that learners have experienced conflicts of cultural concepts after they reach the intermediate level. There are similar trends for both additive and productive bilingual identities, that is, the higher the learners' proficiency is, the more salient their additive and productive identities are. And it shows a significant difference ($P=.016^*$) between the means of two groups: the high-proficiency group and the low-proficiency group. It reveals that high-proficiency learners' understanding of different cultures tends to be more harmonious, profound, objective and comprehensive, so that they can adopt different communicative strategies in different cultural situations.

TABLE 3.
DEVELOPMENTAL PATTERN OF BILINGUAL IDENTITIES ACROSS DIFFERENT LEVELS OF PROFICIENCY

proficiency	high-proficiency group	intermediate group	low-proficiency group
instrumental	25.78	26.09	28.79
subtractive	17.74	18.87	16.95
split	17.27	18.24	16.43
additive	26.02	24.36	23.38
productive	25.67	24.40	22.59

B. Qualitative Evidence: Results from Learners' Autobiographical Accounts

1. Instrumental bilingual identity: English as a tool

The qualitative material illustrates that learners' instrumental bilingual identity is particularly distinct at the beginning of English study, and it goes through the whole process of second language study. At the beginning stage,

students often pay much attention to their scores in English exam, for example, *"In my junior and senior middle school days, I thought English was just a subject for exam."* When they choose English as their majors in college, they begin to realize its importance in personal development, for example, *"I always feel extremely anxious before the English certificate tests..... However, I always know its importance for the future career. So I know I can never give up."* *"My parents want me to be an English teacher in the future, and I think it's a good idea."*

English learners' instrumental bilingual identity is closely related to their self-appraisal. For example, *"I once took part in a national English contest, and the score made me very confident in English."* *"I am very proud that I can make all kinds of English instructions, English slogans when I take the part-time jobs."* *"when I use fluent English to introduce my city to foreign travelers, I get a sense of achievement and fulfillment and I am greatly motivated."*

English learners of different proficiency all have instrumental bilingual identity, reflecting that learners' instrumental motivation is very important in China, such as getting a certificate, getting a working opportunity, etc. Also, it influences learners' self-appraisal and confidence very much, and in the long run it would be an essential factor for the cultivation of learners' language and character.

2. Subtractive and split bilingual identities: conflicts between different cultures

When learners reach their intermediate level, they would sense the great discrepancy and conflicts between their native language/culture and the second ones. They feel their native language/culture are either replaced or deprived by the foreign ones. To be specific, some learners find that their proficiency in native language declines along with their improvement in English, for example, *"I'm now very unsensitive to Chinese characters. I cannot spell many characters, and I don't know the meaning of many common idioms."* *"I pay little attention to Chinese, I must admit I don't know much about Chinese culture."* In learners' daily life, their native thinking way is even replaced by the English one, for example, *"when I am asked to present my opinion, I usually follow the standard format as 'firstly, secondly, thirdly...', maybe it's just because of numerous English writing experience."* In addition, some learners tend to accept English culture, and hold the negative views for native one, for example, *"Chinese are so conservative and they deal with everything in a very indirect way. For me, I prefer the direct American way."* *"Parents are always centered in Chinese family education, while English family education is contrary to this. I look forward to living in western countries."* *"Chinese concepts of time is loose, and I am very ashamed to see Chinese are always late for the meeting."*

The above qualitative evidence is mutually confirmed by the quantitative data, indicating the divergence and conflicts experienced by English learners. These conflicts, however, "can never be seen as totally negative" (Yihong G, 2004). It is agreed that students only can have such feelings and reflections when they understand English language/culture to a certain extent. When they reflect more and more, their bilingual identities tend to be additive and productive. So we can say subtractive and split bilingual identities are a stage where learners endeavor to acquire English culture and construct their own understanding of self culture.

3. Additive and productive bilingual identities: integration of different cultures

There are also much evidence of additive and productive bilingual identities in the qualitative material, which illustrates the learners' growth in critical thinking and multi-cultural perspectives. Learners express their rational and tolerant attitudes for cultural difference in an abstract way, for example, *"I don't want to determine which culture is better, Chinese or English, because they are the results of long-time accumulation. We just need to make the best of the both worlds."* *"English study made me not self-centered any more, and I began to see every culture equally."* *"Chinese culture is like a poem, while English culture is like a sensible man"* *"In view of cultural difference, we need to learn from others' strong points to offset our own weakness."* Also, in dealing with the specific cultural situations, learners can adjust their communication styles according to different cultural settings, for example, *"I would to be frank to foreigners, but to be indirect to my Chinese friends and relatives."* Moreover, English study has improved learners' comprehension of Chinese language and culture, for example, *"By comparison between two languages, I found Chinese so charming."* In addition, learners of high-proficiency tend to hold very critical and objective viewpoints to different cultures, for example, *"Westerners have advantage in creativity over Chinese, while Chinese are more attentive and careful in dealing with issues."* Finally, learners' reflective consciousness also indicates their growth as well-rounded "human beings", for example, *"I begin to know a totally different life style after learning English. I can integrate it into my own life."* *"English study is a difficult and long journey, and I find our life is just like this journey."*

Learners' new-appeared additive and productive bilingual identities are regarded as positive and acquisitive changes, and it's a good opportunity to broaden their cultural horizons and remodel their cultural identities. In doing so, learners can gradually develop independent, rational, tolerant and multiple cultural identities.

VI. CONCLUSION

By adopting both quantitative and qualitative methods, this paper, with the types of bilingual identities (Yongwei B & Yihong G, 2006) serving as the framework, examines the characteristics of Chinese college English learners' bilingual identity changes. It was found that instrumental bilingual identity penetrates through L2 learning process, additive and productive bilingual identity are dominant types among L2 English learners, while subtractive and split bilingual identities are not the general trend in youngsters; the bilingual identity construction of EFL learners may assume the following process: instrumental bilingual identity, subtractive and split bilingual identity, additive and productive bilingual identity. The study indicates the conflicts and integration of bilingual identity experienced by L2 English

learners of different proficiency. The results confirm the argument of “Spiral Model of the development of English learners’ identity changes, that is, from unitary identity to double identities to integrative identity.” (Yihong G et al, 2003)

Concerning China’s circumstance, English learners’ instrumental bilingual identity and cultural bilingual identity are equally important. Hence English teachers should guide students to take English into their career plan; “Content-based English learning” should be popularized in China’s colleges and universities; students’ intrinsic motivation in English should be cultivated so as to broaden their cultural horizon; productive bilingualism is the ideal goal of English education and should be taken as the ultimate purpose of language education; the native language/ culture should be integrated into English study to promote students’ development as a whole person.

The present study, of course, cannot be exempted from drawbacks. For example, the study is conducted within the framework of five types of bilingual identities, students’ identity change, however, cannot be and will never be clear-cut, so more detailed qualitative research is needed to explore the characteristics of students’ identity change. This drawback needs to be taken into account in future research.

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APPENDIX. QUESTIONNAIRE

A. Personal Information

Gender _____ Age _____ Years of learning English _____
Present English proficiency _____ (CET4 or TEM4)

B. Questionnaire

Dear participants,

The following questionnaire is intended for a research on cultural identity changes. How much do you agree or disagree with each statement? Circle one of the options based on your own experience by referring to the instructions below.

<u>Strongly disagree</u>	<u>Somewhat disagree</u>	<u>Neutral agree/Not sure</u>	<u>Somewhat agree</u>	<u>Strongly agree</u>
1	2	3	4	5

1. With the improvement of my English proficiency, I feel my Chinese is becoming less idiomatic.
1 2 3 4 5
2. After learning English, I have become more interested in Chinese traditional culture and western customs.
1 2 3 4 5
3. English for me is a stepping-stone to get a job.
1 2 3 4 5
4. With the improvement of my English proficiency, I can better appreciate the subtleties in Chinese.
1 2 3 4 5
5. I feel weird when my speech in Chinese is subconsciously mixed with English words.
1 2 3 4 5
6. One important goal of my English study is to get a diploma in college.
1 2 3 4 5
7. I can easily switch between Chinese and English according to situational needs.
1 2 3 4 5
8. After learning English, I have developed repugnance to some Chinese conventions.
1 2 3 4 5
9. I feel a painful split when I switch between English and Chinese behavioral patterns.
1 2 3 4 5
10. I found my communication styles and behaviors were a little westernized after learning English for many years.
1 2 3 4 5
11. An instrument is an instrument. It is impossible for me to change into another person after learning a language.
1 2 3 4 5
12. In English setting, I am very confident to show myself. While in Chinese situations, I try to be a modest person as required by Chinese culture .
1 2 3 4 5
13. After learning English, I like popular music of America better and like to listen to original songs in English.
1 2 3 4 5
14. I prefer to listen to the original English dialogue when watching English movies, just as I enjoy the original

Chinese dialogue when watching Chinese movies.

1 2 3 4 5

15. When parting with foreign friends, I'm frequently confused as to whether I should shake hands or hug and kiss.

1 2 3 4 5

16. I prefer social activities which involve only non-Chinese.

1 2 3 4 5

17. After learning English, I find myself more sensitive to changes in the outside world.

1 2 3 4 5

18. After learning English, I have begun to reject some traditional Chinese ideas.

1 2 3 4 5

19. After learning English, I have become more understanding and can better communicate with others.

1 2 3 4 5

20. As my ability of appreciating English literature and arts increases, I have become more interested in Chinese literature and arts.

1 2 3 4 5

21. I have an English name in addition to my Chinese name. They are used in different situations.

1 2 3 4 5

22. Only if I learn English, can I get a good job in the future.

1 2 3 4 5

23. When communicating with foreigners, we should follow both cultural habits.

1 2 3 4 5

24. I found traditional Chinese concepts often conflict with English concepts, which makes me confused and torturous.

1 2 3 4 5

25. When chatting with my classmates, I always use English words and idioms to help express myself accurately; while talking with my parents or someone else, I prefer in idiomatic Chinese or dialect.

1 2 3 4 5

26. I found I gain better understanding of my native language and culture due to cross-cultural comparison.

1 2 3 4 5

27. After learning English, I'm frequently confused how to greet to my generation or relatives.

1 2 3 4 5

28. After learning English, I call my teacher's name directly rather than his or her title.

1 2 3 4 5

29. Speaking fluent English is a symbol of good education.

1 2 3 4 5

30. After learning English, I am more sensitive to western values such as "personality", as well as our traditional cultural values.

1 2 3 4 5

31. After learning English, I found it still difficult to communicate with foreigners for the differences of culture and value.

1 2 3 4 5

32. I learn English just for a better job opportunity.

1 2 3 4 5

33. After learning English, I dare to look at others directly while talking and expressing myself with more confidence.

1 2 3 4 5

34. I learn English in order to learn my own major better.

1 2 3 4 5

35. After learning English, I'm frequently confused what I should present to a foreign friend for the differences between two cultures.

1 2 3 4 5

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The Relationship between EFL Learners' Metacognitive Strategies, and Their Critical Thinking

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Abstract—The present study investigates the the relationship between metacognition and critical thinking in language learning. 102 intermediate students from 2 language institutions in Rasht were selected. Data were gathered by means of two questionnaires and were analyzed using Pearson Correlation procedures. Results indicated that there was a positive correlation between metacognition and critical thinking. In other words, the more metacognitive strategies increase in students, the more critical thinking enhances as well. A comparison of gender differences was done too. The mean scores of male and female participants' critical thinking and metacognitive strategies were investigated. The mean score of male participants' critical thinking and metacognitive strategies was more from the mean score of the female participants.

Index Terms—critical thinking, metacognition strategies, MSQIT, CCTST

I. INTRODUCTION

The concept of metacognition and critical thinking are two important aspects of the learner in improving language learning. Critical thinking is awareness of one's own thinking and reflection on the thinking of self and others as objects of cognition (Ku, 2009). Metacognition was defined as thinking about one's thinking through a cyclical process of analyzing, self-monitoring and evaluating one's response to information in an effort to more clearly understand new knowledge (Sternberg, 1998).

Study of critical thinking and metacognition has become very important. Metacognitive skills are valuable to students and they foster critical thinking-most teachers know little about how to include metacognitive skills in course curricula (Pellegrino, 2007). Metacognition and critical thinking are two important factors in the development of language learning of EFL learners. As such, it is necessary to carry out further research to understand more about them and their relationship with other variables such as age, gender, motivation, anxiety and so on. One of the objects of education is for students to think critically. In order to achieve this end, it is important to identify certain metacognitive factors that can facilitate it. As such, this study emphasizes on the role of EFL learners' metacognitive strategies and their critical thinking skills.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

A. Metacognition

The term metacognition has been variously defined by different people. Flavell (1979) defined metacognition as "the individuals' knowledge about cognitive processes and the application of this knowledge for controlling the cognitive process." Young (1991) stated that metacognition is the ability to control one's own thinking processes in problem solving.

It is often argued that the importance of metacognition is in its potential to explore, explain and ultimately to improve students' thinking and learning processes (White, 1988).

Kuhn defined metacognition as, "Enhancing (a) metacognitive awareness of what one believes and how one knows and (b) metastrategic control in application of the strategies that process new information"

Taylor (1999) defines metacognition as "an appreciation of what one already knows, together with a correct apprehension of the learning task and what knowledge and skills it requires, combined with the agility to make correct inferences about how to apply one's strategic knowledge to a particular situation, and to do so efficiently and reliably."

According to Flavell (1979) there are four model of metacognition: (1) metacognitive knowledge, (2) metacognitive experiences, (3) goals/tasks, and (4) actions/strategies. He said that people monitor their cognitive process by using components described in these four categories.

Another metacognitive model by Winne and Hadwin (1998) has four basic stages: task definition, goal setting and planning, enactment, and adaptation. Their model suggests that the learner generates a perception of what the task is and the available resources, makes a plan for addressing the task, enacts study strategies, and makes changes to his or her cognitive structure based on perceptions of performance.

The assessment of metacognition is made intrinsically difficult because it is not an overt behavior; it is not only arrays of inner processes but rather often individuals are not completely aware of them. (Sand íUre ña, 2008).

In an investigation of students' use of metacognitive strategies by Iranian EFL learners in doing various tasks across different proficiency levels, Torkamani (2010) found that, there was significant difference among the participants of various proficiency levels in their choice of metacognitive strategies due to the impact of language proficiency level.

In another study, Rahimi and Katal (2010) investigated metacognitive strategies awareness and success in learning English as a foreign language. According to this research, metacognitive learners who take conscious steps to understand what they are doing when they learn are the most successful learners. Rahimi studied some theories and practices in the field of metacognitive knowledge and language learning. She believes that the use of metacognitive strategies allows learners to plan, control and evaluate learning that helps them gain better achievement and better learning results.

Iwai (2011) investigated the effects of metacognitive strategies on the teaching of reading for English as a Foreign Language (EFL) and English as a Second Language (ESL). This study focused on metacognitive reading strategies for these learners, first presenting the concept of metacognition as proposed by Flavell, and then going on to explain reading strategies that require metacognitive skills within three knowledge dimensions: declarative, procedural, and conditional. She believed that teaching metacognitive strategies is a key for success and teaching strategies, step by step is important. In her idea, EFL/ESL teachers should use diverse metacognitive techniques during classroom instruction. Also, teachers are encouraged to model metacognitive strategies, supporting students as they learn how to use them, and then reducing that support as students learn how to use them independently.

Noroozi and Soozandehfar (2011) investigated about metacognitive awareness of reading strategies and reading comprehension. This study was done with 40 university students of English and used two tests (Kruskal-Wallis & Pearson Correlation), which demonstrated a close relationship between reading ability and metacognitive awareness of reading strategies.

B. Critical Thinking

Our ever-changing and challenging world requires students, to go beyond the building of their knowledge; they need to develop their higher-order thinking skills, such as critical thinking, decision making, and problem solving (Profetto-McGrath, 2003; Riddell, 2007; Sezer, 2008).

Ku (2009) States, "besides the ability to engage in cognitive skills, a critical thinker must also have a strong intention to recognize the importance of good thinking and have the initiative to seek better judgment".

Shirkhani & Fahim (2011) believe that language learners who have developed critical thinking skills are capable of doing activities of which other students may not be capable.

Whereas earlier the teachers were at the center and the emphasis was put on what to teach, today's education involves teaching how to think, and how learners can be a critical thinker.

Birjandi and Bagherkazemi (2010) investigated the relationship between Iranian EFL teachers' critical thinking ability and their professional success. In this research measures of the critical thinking ability of some Iranian EFL teachers were obtained. Then, their professional success was estimated by their students through the Successful Iranian EFL Teacher Questionnaire (SIETQ). The result showed a statistically important relationship between the two sets of measures. Considering the result of this study, there is a need to accommodate 'critical thinking' as an essential aspect of EFL teacher education and teacher evaluation programs. According to this research better critical thinkers are better EFL teachers.

Ozkan (2010) believes that critical thinking has a vital role in education. He stated that student who thinks critically can ask suitable questions, gather relevant information, creatively sort through this information, reason from this information and come to reliable conclusions about the world that enable one to act successfully. These students are more productive while using their second language. This study showed how to develop critical thinking skills of English learners through critical thinking activities.

In another study by Aizikovitch-Udi and Amit (2011) promotion of critical thinking by teaching specially designed learning unit was investigated. The purpose of this study was encouraging critical thinking dispositions such as open-mindedness, truth-seeking, self confidence and maturity. The purpose of this study was to help composing new study programs and methods that can be based on the connection between critical thinking, creative thinking and the study of mathematics.

In another study by Marin and Halpern (2011) explicit and imbedded instructional modes were compared and critical thinking was assessed with Halpern Critical Thinking Assessment, which uses constructed response and multiple-choice response formats with everyday situations. In these two studies students who received explicit instruction showed better

results than those in the imbedded instruction group. The results provided evidence that explicit instruction is an effective way for teaching critical thinking skills.

Shirkhani and Fahim (2011) investigated the improvements of critical thinking in foreign language learners. One factor that affects language learners' critical thinking skills is the assessment methods used. Then one of the ways in developing critical thinking is through managing the ways of assessing language learners' ability.

Yang and Wu (2012) had a year-long experimental study about the effect of digital storytelling (DST) for improving the academic achievement, critical thinking and learning motivation in students. The result of this study suggests that after twenty weeks of DST instruction, students showed improvement in English proficiency, critical thinking and learning motivation.

Fung and Howe (2012) emphasized the need for a learning environment that facilitates the practice of group work and the development of critical thinking. This article illustrated the importance of collaborative group work in the development of students' critical thinking skills. The participation of teachers in group discussion can also initiate students' dialogic interaction and consequently sharpen their critical thinking.

C. Metacognition and Critical Thinking

Schoen (1983) believes that critical thinking skills are facilitated through metacognition. He stated that "a successful pedagogy that can serve as a basis for the enhancement of thinking will have to incorporate ideas about the way in which learners organize knowledge and internally represent it and the way these representations change and resist change when new information is encountered" (p. 87).

Halpern (1998) represented metacognition and critical thinking together in a model. She stated that metacognition is the ability to use knowledge to direct and improve thinking skills. When learners are engaged in critical thinking, they need to do specific metacognitive skills such as monitoring thinking process, checking whether progress is being made toward an appropriate goal, ensuring accuracy, and making decisions about the use of time and mental effort. According to Mango this shows that critical thinking is a product of metacognition which provides a direction in the prediction of the two variables (Magno, 2010).

According to Ku and Ho (2010) metacognitive strategies used in critical thinking fall under three categories: planning, monitoring, and evaluating. Planning activities include those aiming at the determination of procedures that direct thinking, the selection of appropriate strategies, and the allocation of available resources (King 1991; Schraw 1998). Monitoring refers to an awareness of task comprehension (Schraw 1998). Monitoring activities are checking task information to validate comprehension and to devote attention to important ideas. Evaluating strategies involve the examination and correction of one's cognitive processes (Facione, 1990). These include evaluating one's reasoning and conclusions (Schraw, 1998). As a whole, a critical thinker is one who is in charge of his thinking processes, while metacognitive strategies enable this control to take place.

In another study by Choy and Cheah (2009) a more apparent connection between metacognition and critical thinking was found. Using a qualitative approach, they found that critical thinking is encouraged inside the classroom among the students when the teacher provides guidelines for them to use materials related to metacognition effectively. Specific strategies such as techniques, prompts, topics, and keywords are used in the class. These cognitive strategies and environmental structuring are specific metacognitive skills that are used to develop critical thinking. They concluded in their study that critical thinking requires higher level of cognitive skills such as metacognition in processing information.

Lee (2009) examined the relationships between metacognition, self-regulation and critical thinking in online Socratic seminars for high school social studies students. First, he examined the effect of metacognition on students' self-regulation and critical thinking. Second, he investigated effects of metacognition as a moderator of the relationships between self-regulation and critical thinking integratively. Third, he investigated the relationship between self-regulation and critical thinking in both the experimental and comparison groups. Finally, he investigated the design and implementation of the two metacognitive tasks. Results of this study reveal the effect of metacognition tasks on students' development of self-regulation. He also showed the effect of the metacognitive tasks on students' self-regulation and potential to develop students' critical thinking.

In another study by Ku and Ho (2010) ten university students with comparable cognitive ability, thinking disposition and academic achievement but with different levels of critical thinking performance participated in this study. They were tested on six thinking tasks. Results of this study showed that good critical thinkers engaged in more metacognitive activities, especially high-level planning and high-level evaluating strategies.

Magno (2010) tested a model where metacognition was used to predict critical thinking. This prediction showed that the ability to monitor one's knowledge and thinking processes directs one to think critically. Magno structuring these two variables in a model establishes their theoretical link especially with the use of standardized measures. It is hypothesized in this study that critical thinking occurs when people use their metacognitive skills and strategies. The two models that were tested in this study: (1) In the first model, metacognition was composed of two factors (2) in the second model, metacognition had eight factors as they affect critical thinking. The results indicated that in both models, metacognition had an important way to critical thinking.

Valeh (2011) investigated about metacognitive strategy use and critical thinking among Science/Technology and Art/Humanities Students. She used two questionnaires. Two groups of Science/Technology and Arts/Humanities students were participated in this study. According to the results of this study there was a significant relationship

between critical thinking dispositions and metacognitive strategy use. There was no significant difference between male/female, and Arts/Humanities and Science/Technology students in using metacognitive strategy and critical thinking dispositions and also, there was no significant difference between different levels of education.

III. RESEARCH QUESTIONS

- 1- Is there any significant relationship between intermediate EFL learners' critical thinking and their use of metacognitive strategies?
- 2- Does gender have any role in this respect?

IV. METHODOLOGY

A. Participants

The participants of the study were 102 Iranian EFL students studying English at intermediate level at language institutes in Rasht. After the administration of The Barron's TOEFL and taking the results into account, the number of participants was reduced to 102. They were all learners of English, ranging from 15 and 23 years. 52 of the participants were male and 50 of them were female. They were studying Interchange book 2 at language institutes in Rasht.

B. Instruments

The instruments employed in this study include: Metacognitive Strategy Questionnaires by Item Type (MSQIT) (Purpura, 1999) to measure metacognition and California Critical Thinking Skills Test (CCTST) to measure critical thinking. MSQIT test consists of 40 items using three sub-scales: 1) goal setting processes (GS) 5-items, 2) planning processes (PL) 8-items, and 3) assessment processes (ASS) 27-items. CCTST test consists of 34 multiple-choice questions designed to measure critical thinking using two sub-scales. The primary sub-scale includes Analysis, Evaluation, Inference and the secondary subscale includes Deduction and Induction.

C. Procedures

In order to collect the necessary data, the following procedures were followed in this study. After selecting students based on the result of a Barron's TOEFL, 102 students were selected to participate in this study. 52 of students were males and 50 of them were females. The purpose of this survey was to discover the relationship between critical thinking and metacognitive strategies in language learning. In doing so, the participants were requested to select the most appropriate answers to MSQIT and CCTST questions. First MSQIT questionnaire then CCTST questionnaire was given to the students. They answered to each questionnaire in 45 minutes. It was explained for the students how to fill up the answer sheets. Having collected the two completed questionnaires, the researcher checked whether the students have answered all the questions. Participants' identities were anonymous.

D. Data Analysis

After collecting the necessary data from the two sets of tests, the researcher ran the Pearson Product Moment Correlation Coefficient to find any possible relationship between the participants' critical thinking and metacognitive strategies. Furthermore, to find out whether the mean score of male participants' critical thinking is not different from the mean score of the female participants' critical thinking an Independent T-test was applied. Finally in order to see whether the mean score of male participants' metacognitive strategies was different from the mean score of the female participants' critical thinking another Independent T-test was performed.

V. RESULTS

In order to collect the necessary data, the two instruments were administered to the participants in one administration session.

The first research question investigated the relationship between male intermediate Iranian EFL learners' critical thinking and their use of metacognitive strategies.

Descriptive statistics of male participants' scores on metacognitive strategies (MSQIT) questionnaire are presented in Table 1.

TABLE 1
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF MALES' SCORES ON MSQIT QUESTIONNAIRE

N	Range	Min	Max	Mean	Median	Mode	SD	Variance
52	84	110	194	151.52	151.50	135 ^a	20.86	435.39

Descriptive statistics of male participants' scores on critical thinking (CCTST) questionnaire are laid out in Table 2.

TABLE 2
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF MALES' SCORES ON CCTST

N	Range	Min	Max	Mean	Median	Mode	SD	Variance
52	11	10	21	14.67	14.50	15	2.57	6.61

Figure 1. Displays this relationship. This figure depicts that as the metacognitive strategies scores increase, the critical thinking scores enhances as well.

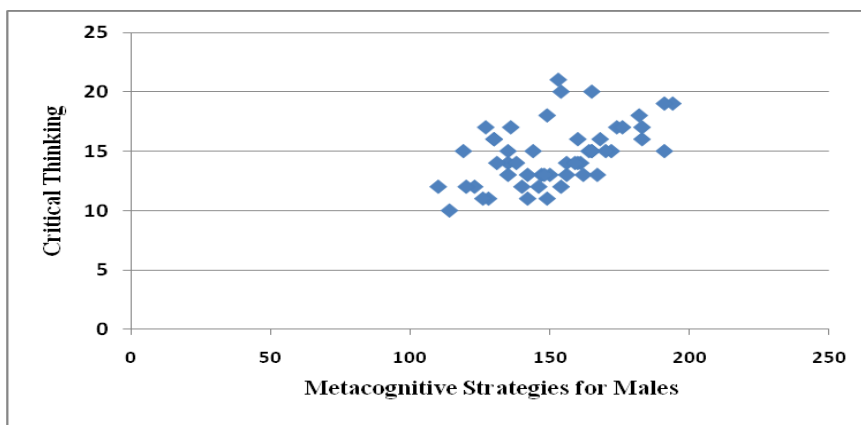


Figure 1. Correlations between Males' Scores on CCTST and MSQIT

The results of the Pearson Correlation procedure indicated a positive relationship between them. In other words, the findings revealed that the more metacognitive strategies increase in students, the more critical thinking enhances as well since a large positive correlation of .512 was observed between participants' metacognitive strategies and their critical thinking. The level of significance is .000 which is less than that of the chosen significance level, .05 ($P < \alpha$).

TABLE 3
CORRELATIONS BETWEEN MALES' SCORES ON CCTST AND MSQIT

		Metacognitive Strategies for Males	Critical Thinking for Males
Metacognitive Strategies for Males	Pearson Correlation	1	.512**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000
	N	52	52
Critical Thinking for Males	Pearson Correlation	.512**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	
	N	52	52

The second research question focused on the investigation of the whether there is a relationship between female intermediate Iranian EFL learners' critical thinking and their use of metacognitive strategies and Pearson Product Moment Correlation was performed.

Descriptive statistics of female participants' scores on metacognitive strategies questionnaire are given in Table 4.

TABLE 4
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF FEMALE'S SCORES ON MSQIT

N	Range	Min	Max	Mean	Median	Mode	SD	Variance
50	83	102	185	142.7	142.00	126 ^a	20.33	413.49

Table 5 sets forth the descriptive statistics of female participants' scores on critical thinking questionnaire.

TABLE 5
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF FEMALE'S 'CCTST QUESTIONNAIRE

N	Range	Min	Max	Mean	Median	Mode	SD	Variance
50	10	9	19	13.20	13.00	13	2.41	5.83

Figure 2 displays this relationship. This figure depicts that as the metacognitive strategies scores increase, the critical thinking scores enhances as well.

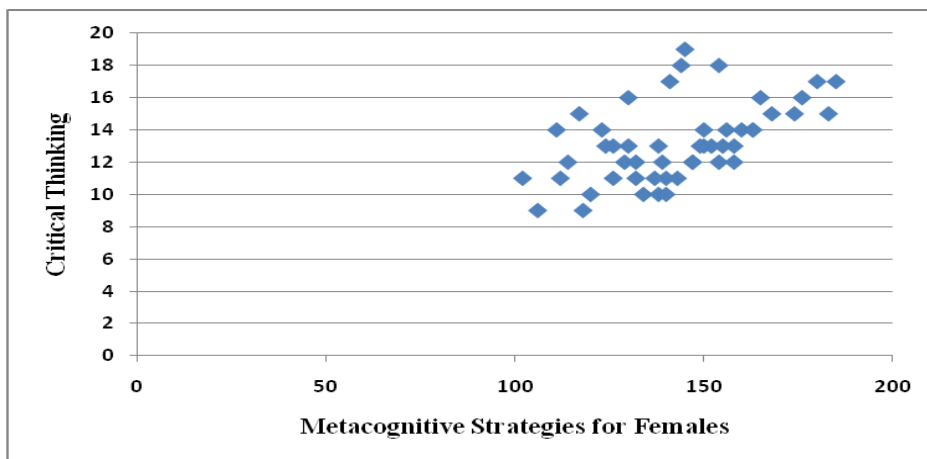


Figure 2. Correlations between Females' Scores on CCTST and MSQIT

Table 6 reveals this relationship. The results revealed that there is a large significant relationship between intermediate Iranian EFL learners' critical thinking and their use of metacognitive strategies for females and language learning. A large positive correlation of .533 was discovered between female participants' metacognitive strategies and their critical thinking. The level of significance is .000 which is less than that of the chosen significance level, .05 ($P < \alpha$).

TABLE 6
CORRELATIONS BETWEEN FEMALES' SCORES ON CCTST AND MSQIT

		Metacognitive Strategies for Females	Critical Thinking for Females
Metacognitive Strategies for Females	Pearson Correlation	1	.533**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000
	N	50	50
Critical Thinking for Females	Parson Correlation	.533**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	
	N	50	50

In order to figure out whether the critical thinking scores are normally distributed, we used Kolmogorov-Smirnoff non-parametric test. Table VII manifests that the Sig. for males and females showed .41 and .33 respectively based on the data which we may consider that the scores are normally distributed. The assumption of normal distribution is not violated since Sig. was higher than .05. Therefore the parametric independent T-test was run to analyze the data.

TABLE 7
ONE-SAMPLE KOLMOGOROV-SMIRNOV TO TEST NORMALITY OF MALES AND FEMALES' SCORES ON CCTST QUESTIONNAIRE

Critical Thinking		Males	Females
N		52	50
Normal Parameters	Mean	14.67	13.20
	Std. Deviation	2.572	2.416
Most Extreme Differences	Absolute	.123	.133
	Positive	.123	.133
	Negative	-.057	-.062
Kolmogorov-Smirnov Z		.883	.940
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)		.416	.339

To see whether the metacognitive strategies scores are normally distributed, we used Kolmogorov-Smirnoff non-parametric test. Table 8 hands on that, the sig for males and females showed .95 and .97 respectively based on the data which we may consider that the scores are normally distributed. Since Sig. was more than .05, the scores are normally distributed for both male and female participants. Therefore the parametric independent T-test was carried out to analyze the data.

TABLE 8
ONE-SAMPLE KOLMOGOROV-SMIRNOV TO TEST NORMALITY OF MALES AND FEMALES' SCORES ON MSQIT QUESTIONNAIRE

Metacognitive Strategies		Males	Females
N		52	50
Normal Parameters	Mean	151.52	142.76
	Std. Deviation	20.866	20.335
	Absolute	.060	.042
Most Extreme Differences	Positive	.060	.042
	Negative	-.044	-.038
Kolmogorov-Smirnov Z		.432	.295
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)		.952	.973

Then the possible difference between male and female participants' critical thinking and metacognitive strategies scores was investigated. As mean score of two independent groups was to compare and scores of two groups had normal distributions, two Independent T-tests were carried out.

According to this investigation, it was concluded that the mean score of male participants' critical thinking is significantly more from the mean score of the female participants' critical thinking and also mean score of male participants' metacognitive strategies is significantly more from the mean score of the female participants' metacognitive strategies.

VI. DISCUSSION

To calculate the relationship between two variables of this study, Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient was applied. The correlation between male intermediate Iranian EFL learners' critical thinking and their use of metacognitive strategies was .51, while for females it was slightly higher, $r=.53$. The p value for correlation between variables for both males and females was .000. The level of significance does not indicate how strongly the two variables are associated, but instead it indicates much confidence should be had in the results obtained.

Figure 3 shows the relationship between intermediate Iranian EFL learners' critical thinking and their use of metacognitive strategies for males was .51. However it was .53 for females.

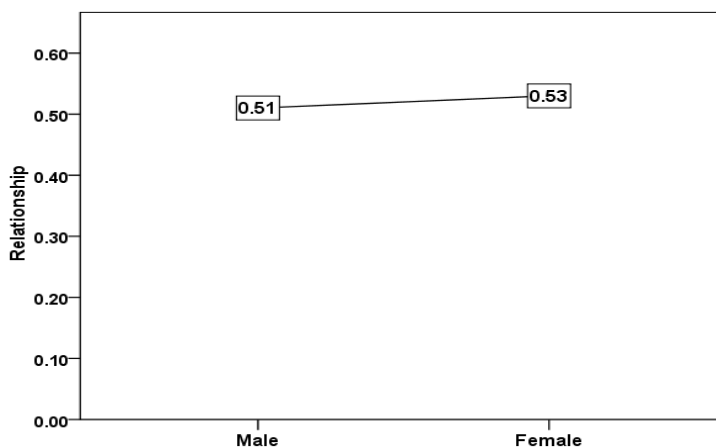


Figure 3. the relationship between critical thinking and metacognitive

Different authors interpret the value of correlation differently; however, Cohen (1998, pp.79-81) suggests the following guidelines:

Small	$r=.10$ to $.29$
Medium	$r=.30$ to $.49$
large	$r=.50$ to 1.0

In this study, there is a large correlation between the two variables for both males and females, suggesting quite a strong relationship between intermediate Iranian EFL learners' critical thinking and their use of metacognitive strategies for both males and females.

The results of this study are in line with Özkan' (2010) idea that a student who thinks critically can ask good questions, gather relevant information, efficiently and creatively sort through the present information, reason logically from this information, and come to reliable and trustworthy conclusions about the world that enable one to live and act successfully. Therefore, they are more productive while using their second language.

The results of this study also correlates with Soden's (2000) findings that critical thinking encompasses a number of abilities such as identifying a problem and the assumptions on which it is based, focusing the problem, analyzing, understanding and making use of inferences, inductive and deductive logic, and judging the validity and reliability of assumptions and sources of data. The present study is compatible with the study of Kogut (1996), who found specific strategies that improve critical thinking which are metacognitive in nature. The results of the present study are also in line with those of Kuhn and Dean (2004) who found explicit use of metacognition to achieve critical thinking in the context of a debate. They found that in understanding an opponent's argument and making one's counterargument requires the debater to do deep level of processing or metacognition that help the individual decide to continue or withdraw certain behaviors in achieving a goal. In addition, the findings of the present study corroborate those of Orion and Kali (2005) who showed a connection between metacognition and thinking skills using a qualitative analysis approach. At the same time, the present study is in accordance with those of Choy and Cheah (2009) who reported a connection between metacognition and critical thinking. They found that critical thinking is encouraged inside the classroom among the students when the teacher provides guidelines for them to use materials related to metacognition effectively. Magno (2010) also obtained the same result as he tested a model where metacognition was used to predict critical thinking. This prediction showed that the ability to monitor one's knowledge and thinking processes helps one to think critically.

This finding supports another investigation by Valeh (2011) who found a significant relationship between critical thinking dispositions and metacognitive strategy use.

VII. CONCLUSION

The present study attempted to study on the effect of two variables, metacognition and critical thinking and their effect on students' language learning. The first research question sought to investigate the relationship between male intermediate Iranian EFL learners' critical thinking and their use of metacognitive strategies. The results of the Pearson Correlation procedure indicated a positive relationship between them. In other words, the findings revealed that the more metacognitive strategies increase in students, the more critical thinking enhances as well. The second research question focused on the investigation of the whether there is a relationship between female intermediate Iranian EFL learners' critical thinking and their use of metacognitive strategies and Pearson Product Moment Correlation was performed. The results revealed that there is a large significant relationship between intermediate Iranian EFL learners' critical thinking and their use of metacognitive strategies for females and language learning.

Then the possible difference between male and female participants' critical thinking and metacognitive strategies scores was investigated. As mean score of two independent groups was to compare and scores of two groups had normal distributions, two Independent T-tests were carried out.

According to this investigation, it was concluded that the mean score of male participants' critical thinking is significantly more from the mean score of the female participants' critical thinking and also mean score of male participants' metacognitive strategies is significantly more from the mean score of the female participants' metacognitive strategies.

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College English Test: To Be Abolished or To Be Polished

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Abstract—College English Test (CET) is a national standardized achievement test in mainland China. As a test with government backing, its passing rate has been used as one important index to evaluate higher institutions' teaching quality, which has pushed institutions to improve the teaching facilities and enhance quality of teaching staff for College English. It is believed that this has ever promoted the rapid growth of undergraduates' English level and accumulated knowledge for test development. Meanwhile Chinese society has imposed upon CET extra value, which makes it a high-stakes test and its negative impacts are emerging. It has resulted in test-oriented education and become a hurdle to College English reform. In addition its validity and fairness are constantly being challenged. After carefully balancing its positive and negative backwash to College English teaching and learning, I propose that a substantial reform of the present CET might be a feasible solution. Government's withdraw of its administrative role from CET and a change from achievement to proficiency test should be the orientation of reform. Furthermore, the validity of the test needs to be further improved.

Index Terms—College English, College English Test, language testing

I. INTRODUCTION

College English Test (CET) is a national standardized achievement test in mainland China. It is led by Higher Educational Department, Ministry of Education, developed by National College English Testing Committee (NCETC), jointly implemented with the help of the National Education Examinations Authority (NEEA) (NCETC, 2006). CET4 and CET6 are held twice each year respectively in June and December. The test takers are non-English major students in higher education institutions. The CET Spoken English Test (CET-SET) was initiated in 1999, which is only accessible to students whose CET4 score is 550 or above, or whose CET6 score is 520 or above.

After CET's inception in 1987, its passing rate has been used as one important index to assess the teaching quality of higher education institutions. CET has been exerting a big influence upon English language education in Chinese universities. Almost every university wants to do better in the passing rate since it means better reputation, more motivated students and more government financial support. As a result, the course of College English soon achieved its important position in the higher education system. As a government backed test, CET has quickly got recognition by the society. The employers regard CET certificate as one important quality of college graduates. College students are stimulated to spend time and effort on English learning. These factors objectively contribute to the improvement of teaching and learning of College English.

However, CET is a double blade sword. It has directly resulted in test-oriented education. Out of utilitarianism, both universities and students favor the short-term benefits and reluctant to concentrate on training of communicative competence. Quality education has become an empty talk. Besides, its validity and reliability are constantly challenged. Just like Liu and Dai's (2004) claimed, 'Its designers juggle the figures about its validity and reliability from the data of millions of takers only to mislead the less informed. Those who know about language testing and statistics have always taken their figures with a big grain of salt.' (p.6). The reservation or revocation of CET has been hotly debated for years. With its growing side effects, there is an urgent need to find a solution.

II. REVIEW OF CONCEPTS

In terms of language testing, two key criteria of evaluation in any measurement are:

- Whether we are measuring what we intend to measure;
- Whether the same measurement process yields the same results (Columbia Uni., 2014).

These two concepts are *validity* and *reliability*. Lado (1961) ever asked, 'Does a test measure it purports to measure? If it does, it is valid.' (p.132). Weir (2010) noted that validity is perhaps better defined as the extent to which a test can be shown to produce data, i.e., test scores, which are an accurate representation of a candidate's level of language knowledge or skills. It is validity that makes a test useful. A valid test must also be reliable. Reliability is often defined as consistency of measurement in a test, which means reliability can be considered a function of the consistency of scores from one set of tests and test tasks to another (Bachman & Palmer, 1999). Namely, a test is regarded with reliability if it produces similar results under similar conditions. It is impossible to detour these two indexes if CET

want to be useful and authoritative.

The effect of testing on teaching and learning is known as *backwash* (Hughes, 2003), which has an impact not only on teachers and learners, but on educational systems in general, and on society at large (Hughes, 2003). The backwash effect can be beneficial or negative. As far as CET is concerned, the positive backwash may diagnose the weakness and strength of College English teaching and learning, so as to improve it. On the other hand, the negative backwash may give out misleading information and be counteractive to teaching and learning. It is very likely that negative backwash will result in a lot of waste of time and effort. It is the responsibility and conscience of test designers and administrators to maximize the former and minimize the latter.

III. THE RISE OF CET

A. *The Social Context under Which CET Was Initiated*

Language test never takes place in isolation. It is done for a particular purpose and in a specific context (Bachman, 1999). CET is no exception. Domestically, after the Reform and Opening-up policy was implemented in 1977, China's communication with the world began to soar in a way of geometric growth. Attracted by the favorable investment policy, numerous foreign companies began to set up enterprises in mainland China, and many joint ventures were established as well. At the same time, China's foreign trade was growing steadily. As a result, a large number of talents who could communicate in English were urgently demanded by the society.

Internationally, the concepts of global village and economic globalization brought about the need for a lingua franca, which inevitably has fallen upon English. In human history English has never penetrated so widely and deeply into the hearts and minds of individuals and societies as it does today (Feng, 2011). Feng (2011) appropriated a metaphor the 'third wave' to describe the current surge of English spreading in the contemporary world. If China wants to accelerate its integration into the world, English as a tool has become prerequisite.

Both the domestic economic development and international communication demanded a large number of talents who know English. However, English education in 1980s couldn't meet the demands. The English education at that time was at an embarrassing low level, which was influenced both by international political climate and domestic turbulence. From the year 1949 when People's Republic of China was founded to the early 1960s, China had developed a very intimate relation with Soviet Union, so Russian had been the dominating foreign language in all levels of educational institutions. With the breakdown of Sino-Soviet relation, Russian lost its prestige and popularity and English became the favored foreign language (Gil & Adamson, 2011). However it didn't last long before the Cultural Revolution which started in 1966 and ended in 1976 totally damaged the whole educational system. The intellectuals mainly teachers were indiscriminately labeled as 'chou lao jiu' (stinking number nine). Teachers were often publicly denounced and humiliated by students and the school education was in a paralyzed state. In addition, English language was regarded as the capitalist culture which was under condemnation. Therefore when the Reform and Opening-up policy was initiated in 1977, the central government found that English education in China seriously lagged behind the economic and cultural advance.

Under these circumstances, the central government realized actions must be taken to improve the situation. College English Teaching Syllabus (Science and Technology) was therefore implemented in 1985 and College English Teaching Syllabus (Arts and Science) in 1986 by State Education Commission (former Ministry of Education) (Jin, 2011), which played a significant role in College English education and set an teaching aim and requirement for college English. The Syllabuses have divided College English into 6 bands, among which bands 1-4 are compulsory and band 5-6 are elective. In the document to approve the Syllabus by State Education Commission (FLTRA, 1985), it formulated that standardized tests would be administered to students when they finish band 4/6. As a result, CET4 emerged in 1987 and CET6 in 1989, in an aim to check how well the two syllabuses are implemented and provide feedback for College English teaching.

B. *The Orientation of CET*

Purpose: The most prevalent use of language test is for purpose of evaluation in educational programs (Bachman, 1999), which is identical to Hughes's idea of measuring language proficiency (2003). In addition Hughes proposed two additional purposes: to discover how successful students have been in achieving the objective of a course of study, or to diagnose students' strengths and weaknesses to identify what they know and what they don't know (2003). The present CET is claimed to theoretically serve the above mentioned three purposes. CET is designed to check how well the Teaching Syllabus is implemented, assess students' all-around ability to use English, and exert a positive influence on the accomplishment of College English teaching aim (NCETC, 2006). It implies that CET4/6 may also help to diagnose students' area of strength and weakness. It is believed that its backwash will help College English reform and design more effective teaching models.

Achievement or proficiency test: Compared to Language proficiency test which is designed to measure test takers' ability to function in the target language regardless of the type of training they have had in that language, achievement test is used to measure skills and knowledge the test takers have learned in a given grade level, usually after a specific part of the curriculum has been covered (ILR, 2013). College English is a required course based on classroom instruction with very formal textbooks, and CET is designed to evaluate college students' language level when they

finish learning the textbooks from band 1 to band 4. Besides, CET has its own testing syllabus, which gives a detailed introduction of its purpose, construct, score interpretation and score report, etc. It has the key factors of being an achievement test. On top of that, all the students are tested at the same time, under similar conditions, with almost the same items. Considering these factors, CET can be described as a standardized achievement test. However in practice, the society has imposed on it extra values. Employers regard CET certificate (now 425 points or above) as one of basic qualities of college graduates, and students also see the certificate or good score a stepping stone for a better career. In the eyes of employers and students, it is more like a proficiency test.

Content and interpretation: The content of language tests can be based on either a theory of language proficiency or a specific domain of content (Bachman, 1999). CET falls into the latter, which is based on College English Teaching Syllabus (before 2004) and College English Curriculum Requirements (after 2004). The Syllabus serves as the content criterion. Exactly, CET assesses students' abilities in writing, reading, listening, translating, as well as speaking which is tested in a different time and only accessible to a certain group of students. As for scoring, CET has its carefully designed marking criterion, especially for subjective items, such as writing and translation. After score equating and score normalization, the score being reported to students ranges from 220 to 710, with a mean of 500 and standard deviation of 70. Generally, it is called a criterion-related norm-referenced test (NCETC, 2006). Criterion-related refers to that the test paper is constructed according to the criterion regulated by College English Curriculum Requirements, and norm-referenced means the norm¹ of each part of testing paper is referenced when its raw score is transformed into reporting score.

C. *The Major Development Phases of CET*

Language testing has emerged in the wake of language teaching. Up to now language testing has experienced four periods of development: Pre-scientific Testing Period (before 1950s), Psychometric-Structuralist Period (1950s-1970s), Psycholinguistic-Sociolinguistic Period (1970s - 1980s) and Communicative Testing Period (1980s-) (Wang, 2011). The last three periods have exerted important impact upon CET development. The discrete-point test proposed by Psychometric-Structuralists originates from the idea that language elements and skills could be tested separately (Lado, 1961). It exercised a big influence upon CET construction in its early phase. The CET construct in early phase mainly consisted of Listening, Vocabulary & Structure, Reading and Writing with multiple-choice as the dominant items. In psycholinguistic-Sociolinguistic period, global integrative approach began to win popularity, which advocated integrative test as opposed to discrete-point test. The CET items such as cloze, compound dictation, error correction and writing are under its influence. In recent years, CET has developed CET-SET and internet-based CET (IB-CET) which is impacted by Communicative Testing approach that emphasizes direct testing.

In line with the changing social needs and reforming College English, as well as the advance of testing theories, CET has undergone four major stages of developments (table 1), according to some significant events.

As is shown in table 1, CET started in 1987 with no speaking test and the emphasis was put on reading. In 1999 CET Spoken English (CET-SET) was initiated, which is optional for those who do well in the written test. As for paper-based test, reading is still the key item. A big reform took place in 2005, 100 score system was changed to a norm-referenced system with score ranging from 220 to 710. In addition, the passing or failing cut-off score was eliminated and a detailed score report would be sent to students instead of certificates. The percentage of Listening part was increased from 20% to 35%. Initial implementation of IB-CET took place in 2008, whose content mainly consists of three parts: Listening Comprehension, Listening-based Integrated Tasks, and Reading Comprehension. Up to now it coexists with the paper-based test which still remains the mainstream testing method.

¹ Norm, a set standard of development or achievement usually derived from the average or median achievement of a large group ("merriam-webster", 2014).

time frame	big events	content (paper-based)
1987	CET4 inception in 1987	listening (20%)
↓	CET6 inception in 1989	reading (40%)
	certificate for qualifier	vocabulary & structure (15%)
		cloze (10%)
		writing (15%)
1999	CET-SET inception in 1999	listening (20%)
↓		reading (40%)
		vocabulary & structure (15%)
		comprehensive (10%)①
		writing (15%)
2005	score range:220-710	listening (35%)
↓	score report	reading (35%)
	no cut-off score	comprehensive (15%)
	no certificate	writing (15%)
2008	IB-CET4 inception in 2008	writing (15%)
↓	IB-CET6 inception in 2009	listening (35%)
		reading (35%)
2013		translation (15%)

table 1:development phases of CET
 ①comprehensive includes: cloze/error correction or translation/SAQ

IV. DISCUSSION

A. Contributions of CET

1. CET is said to have promoted College English Education

During the three decades from founding of People’s Republic of China to late 1970s, owing to ideological confrontation and domestic turbulence, the English education in China remains a state of intermittence and low level. There was no clear teaching aim and corresponding teaching content, not to mention teaching assessment. According to a research (Yang, 2003), only one third of college graduates could reach the level of reading English with a speed of 17 words per minute. Although College English was a required course, it was in a subordinative position and regarded unimportant comparing to other specialized courses. Many universities and colleges didn’t have full-time College English teachers. The main duty of many College English teachers was to teach English majors or other specialized courses. College English teachers usually didn’t have their own teaching and research section, and their office was generally called ‘MaTiWai’, meaning a comprehensive office for courses of Marxism-Leninism & Mao Zedong Thought, Physical Education and Foreign Language Education.

CET is believed to have produced some beneficial backwash on College English education. Its passing rate as an important official assessing index has pushed institutions to improve their education facilities and enhance quality of College English teachers. Independent department for College English was established in almost every higher education institutions and full-time teachers were employed. Each university and college quickly built its language labs for College English, which called an end to teach listening with a tape recorder.

With the flourishing of College English, the textbooks also witnessed a big development. Many new textbooks for College English have been published. Among these, the most influential ones are the *New Horizon College English* by Beijing Foreign Language Teaching and Research Press, *New College English* by Shanghai Foreign Language Education Press, and *Experiencing English* by Higher Education Press.

Regarding CET certificate as one stepping stone to hunt for a promising job, students have impetus to learn English. These factors definitely have made some contributions to College English education. According to Yang’s statistics in table 2 (Yang, 2004), within the 15 years after CET’s inception, college students’ English proficiency has improved quite a lot, comparing with late 1980s. Many factors have made contributions though, the achievement owns a lot to the CET that can be taken as the First Cause.

	listening (20 points)			reading (40 points)			writing (15 points)		
	first 5 years	mid 5 years	last 5 years	first 5 years	mid 5 years	last 5 years	first 5 years	mid 5 years	last 5 years
students from ordinary universities	10	11.75	12.5	25	26	27.5	4.5	6	7.5
students from key universities	11	13	14	27	28	31	5.5	7.5	8.5

table 2: CET item score from 1987 to 2003(average raw score)

Meanwhile it is a fact that students’ spoken English is poor even if they have completed CET. One reason for this might be speaking is not required in CET, and only a small number of students have access to CET-SET. Both teachers and students don’t have enough motivation to spend efforts on it. Another reason might be that students don’t have an environment to use the language except for a little use in English class. A typical contrast will be Ningbo Nottingham

University. The Chinese students there could talk freely and attend courses delivered in English only after one year language training (Su & Chen, 2010). The working language of Nottingham is English and students have to use English to survive there. It shows language environment plays an important role in language acquisition, especially speaking ability.

2. The practice of CET has accumulated knowledge for test development

Test development is the entire process of creating and using a test, beginning with its initial conceptualization and design, and culminating in one or more archived tests and the results of their use (Bachman & Palmer, 1999). It is a complex process involving construct design, items writing, try-out, validation, test giving and feedback. It is especially complicated for large-scale high-stakes standardized test. As far as CET is concerned, it is a nation-wide standardized test with a test population of over 18 million each year (Jin, 2011), and it is a high-stakes test as well since its result is critical for graduates in job market. It is highly demanding to manage such a test. Among the numerous factors in its development process, *validity* and *administration* are of great importance which requires special attention.

CET designers have always been seeking to validate the test. Meanwhile standardization requires high reliability. It is important to keep a balance between reliability and validity. From 1993 to 1996, National College English Testing Committee (NCETC) collaborated with British Council (University of Reading exactly), conducted a comprehensive research on CET validity in terms of construct validity, content validity, concurrent validity, predicative validity and face validity. Some weak parts of CET design was identified though, the research result confirmed that CET is a test with high reliability and validity. According to the research (Yang & Weir, 1998), its internal reliability reaches 0.9 or above and 92% College English teachers responded that CET is a real reflection of students' English proficiency.

In a broader sense, test administration includes all the managing actions in the process of carrying out the test securely and fairly. For large-scale test like CET, administration is even more important and difficult for unreliable results may occur if the test is not well administered (Weir, 2010). With 2138 higher education institutions (MOE, 2012) and 18 million test takers each year, not to mention a huge number of invigilators and supporting personnel, a slight negligence may result in items leaking, which will cause untold consequences. From items writing, to paper printing, to paper transporting, to test giving, it requires a careful and efficient plan to prevent tragedy from happening. Under the guidance of NEEA Safety and Confidentiality Regulations (MOE, PDCC, MPS, & SSB, 2004), CET administrators have developed series of rules and practices to ensure test paper's safety. The key ones may be listed as follow:

- Non-disclosure agreement is signed with the personnel who have the chance to access the test items.

Test papers' transportation from the printing factory to each province, then to each test site is under protection of strict rules.

- Handbook is issued and staff is trained at each site.

- Strict regulations are practiced when the test is given.

Another key factor to ensure the fair-play of test is that each site's environment must be of the same standard, such as classroom facilities (seats, tables, lighting, etc.), noise control, time allotment and listening broadcasting. After 26 years' practicing, almost every test site has been very experienced in ensuring the test environment meets the requirements. Generally the city radio station is asked to give help to broadcast the listening part and students will listen with their own radio receivers. Besides, students are required to bring with them the admission ticket, ID card and student card to prevent cheating and items leaking.

With its knowledge accumulation in validity and administration, CET has promoted itself being more scientific, as well as developed the potential to lend experience to other similar tests.

B. Drawbacks of CET

1. It has given rise to test-oriented education

The good test is an obedient servant since it follows and apes the teaching (Davies, 1968). It is language test that should serve language teaching, and it is irreversible. Teaching enjoys the primary importance. The purpose of CET is to discover how well students have achieved the study objectives of College English and diagnose the strength and weakness of students, so that teaching can be improved. We need to be cautious if a test's side effect overgrows to the extent that it becomes a hurdle to language teaching and learning.

The Ministry of Education regularly evaluates the teaching quality of higher education institutions. The institutions with good evaluation result are approved as qualified in education and will get more share of financial support from government. The worst have to face the fate of losing the qualification to run education in the discipline (MOE, 2011). It is a very important event for institutions. Teaching effect is a key part of evaluation and CET passing rate is usually regarded as one important index of teaching effect (Yu, 2008). To make this index stronger, majority of institutions will push College English teachers to try their best to increase CET passing rate. In some institutions, CET passing rate is connected to the teachers' income. It is not surprising that test-oriented teaching method has been adopted. Numerous other evaluations make the situation even worse.

On the other hand, in the job market, employers usually regard CET certificate (now score report) as one important element of a qualified college graduate and are reluctant to accept applicants without the certificates (Hu, 2005). A higher CET score means a higher guarantee for a better job. College students are incentivized to spend time and effort on CET preparation. They recite the so-called CET key vocabulary, do a lot of test papers, and even pay a lot to attend CET training. The real purpose of learning a foreign language is ignored. The worst part is that some students run the

risk of cheating for a better score. It is ridiculous that cheating has become a big business in China.

According to Liu and Dai’s survey (2004), only 7.1% of teachers agree that scores of nationwide tests can represent the takers’ proficiency level while 13.9% believe it absolutely does not. 78.2% would say it doesn’t necessarily represent one’s language proficiency. According to another survey, 28.4 of students think CET4 is absolutely meaningless, 19.6% believe it is not important, and only 24% think that it is important (Liu & Dai, 2004). The absurdity here is that both educators and students know test-oriented tendency resulted by CET is wrong though, they still stick to it. CET is too powerful to be a scientific test, which calls for immediate change.

2. It has become a hurdle to College English reform

According to College English Curriculum Requirements (Higher Education Department, 2007), the teaching aim of College English is to develop students’ all-round ability to use English, especially listening and speaking, so that graduates can communicate effectively in English in their future study, work and social intercourse. This coincides with the theory of communicative competence. Under the influence of the theory, it has become widely accepted that communicative language teaching is an effective approach of language education. Both education authorities and teachers know it is good and institutions are encouraged to reform their language teaching methods to focus on communicative competence. However it is hard to evaluate the result of communicative language teaching, since it is very subjective. More importantly, this approach will do harm to the CET passing rate. It is difficult to convince the education authority that students’ communicative competence is rising because there is no unified national criterion. However the authority is easy to discover the fall of CET passing rate. Generally the higher institutions are reluctant to take the risk to reform.

Out of utilitarianism, students are more interested in CET training comparing to the teaching model to improve their communicative competence. According to my observation in the university I’m working at and my interview with other teachers, students will ask their teachers to stop their normal teaching plan and focus on CET training when CET is drawing near. Generally the teachers understand students’ concern and will compromise. If the teachers don’t, many students will recite CET vocabulary or do model tests in class instead of being involved in the class activities. Furthermore, students have the right to evaluate their teacher at the end of each semester. Worrying to be scored low, teachers will cater to students’ request. Anyway in the short term, it benefits students, teachers and their institution. However the teaching reform is hindered in the long run.

3. Its validity and fairness are under debate

The CET in December 2013 has witnessed some improvement of its validity. The multiple-choice items which are thought as higher reliability but lower validity are largely reduced and some subjective items with higher validity are replenished (table 3). For example, the item of ‘cloze’ is abandoned which is a typical item of multiple choice. Two passage readings are transformed into the types of banked cloze and information matching, which have higher validity. However, much more efforts are needed to further improve its validity. The purpose of CET is to assess students’ all-round ability to use English. One big defect of the test construct is its lack of spoken English, which is assessed in another separate test. Although there are 18 million CET takers each year, only a small part of test takers whose scores are high enough to have the qualification to register for CET-SET, and the worse part is that most of the qualified will give up the opportunity. One reason might be a high score of written test is good enough to compete in job market, so it makes no sense to participate in CET-SET. Another reason might be its inconvenience to attend CET-SET. There are only 30 test sites in the whole country, which means every province has only one test site. Test takers have to travel a lot and undertake the cost for travelling and test fee. As a result, only far less than 1% of CET takers apply for CET-SET (Cai, 2006). For 99% of CET takers, their spoken English is not tested. This conflicts with CET’s purpose of assessing integrated English ability. In this sense, CET does not fully measure it purports to measure, which puts its validity under doubt.

construct	content	items	%	time
writing	writing	essay writing	15%	30’
listening	short conversations	multiple choice	8%	30’
	long conversatons	multiple choice	7%	
	passages	multiple choice	10%	
	passage	words/phrases dictation	10%	
reading	passage reading	banked cloze	5%	40’
	passage reading	informations matching	10%	
	passage reading	multiple choice	20%	
translation	paragraph translation	Chinese to English	15%	30’
total			100%	130’

table 3: 12/2013 CET items

Furthermore, as College English Curriculum Requirements (Higher Education Department, 2007) states, ‘As China is a large country with conditions that vary from region to region and from college to college, the teaching of College English should follow the principle of providing different guidance for different groups of students and instructing them

in accordance with their aptitude so as to meet the specific needs of individualized teaching' (p25). However CET as an official assessment of College English teaching effects fails to consider the diversity of regions, institutions and students. All students are tested by one paper, which doesn't correspond with individualized teaching.

Up to 2012, there are 2138 higher education institutions in China (MOE, 2012), mainly including key institutions, ordinary institutions, and institution for adults. The students they recruit differ a lot in terms of English level. The key universities can achieve a higher CET passing rate without much effort. However for the ordinary institutions even if their teachers work much harder, it is difficult to catch up with the passing rate of key universities. Therefore it is not fair to assess different institutions with the same criterion, namely CET.

As far as students are concerned, it is even more unfair. The students from countryside have an obvious disadvantage over urban ones. Only 17% (Zhang, 2010) of them have the chance to practice their listening in a language lab in their high schools. Mostly their listening is trained in classroom with a recorder. Their listening ability is poor not because they are not motivated enough but owing to the poor facility. In order to pass CET, they have to spend much more time than urban students. Actually many students even the urban ones have to work hard to pass CET at the expense of sacrificing the time for the subjects they like. Students have to reduce their time for other courses just because other courses don't have a national test. It hinders students from learning their disciplinary courses and is not fair for other courses either.

The situation has called for a testing reform, both in constructing new test and in improving the managing system (Hu, 2005).

C. Both Proponents and Opponents Need Reflection

1. Proponents' real concern: English education or economic gains?

The purpose of organizing CET is supposed to evaluate students' English level and offer feedback to College English teaching and learning. Any deviation will do harm to College English teaching. However, social and economic factors strongly influence beliefs about education (Morris, 2009). Are the experts speaking highly of CET out of promoting College English teaching or out of economic gains? This is a sensitive issue. We do wish the proponents really believe CET promotes teaching and learning and this is a purely academic problem. However the test has developed into a big industry: registration fee, reference books, CET training, even cheating and anti-cheating being big business. According to a report on China Youth Daily (Sun, 2006), the national CET committee has collected registration fee of RMB 224 million since 1989, and the fee was not deposited to financial special account. Among the amount, 190 million was disbursed. Blaikie (2010) ever proposed that one stance a researcher can adopt is to be a conscientizer. Conscientization doesn't only mean to be reflective, but more importantly, to have clear conscience about research, especially when the research is relevant to policy making. On one hand rules must be made to specify the collection and disbursement of registration fee. On the other, the experts must clear their conscience, not giving out misleading information just because of some economic gains. Only after the CET is independent of economic purpose, can it be fairly evaluated whether or not it is beneficial to College English teaching.

2. A question for opponents: will abolition certainly bring out good result?

Easy is to criticize, difficult is to offer solution. Will goodness of abolishing CET surely outweigh its negative? CET abolition might result in unfavorable results. First, with loss of the national test, English will not be used by the education authorities as an index to evaluate institutions' teaching quality. Naturally the institutions will not consider College English as important as before. College English will lose its significant role in the course system of higher education. Fewer funds will go to College English and the teachers will lose priority in furthering their education and training. Second, without the push of CET, many students may lose their motivation in English learning. Under this situation it can be forecasted that the general English level of college students will decline. This will conflict with the trend of internationalization and globalization. Third, CET is often used as stepping stone to get a decent job. Without CET, students many seek for other English proficiency tests to cater to the employers. There are many tests, such as TOEIC (Test of English for International Communication), PETS (Public English Test System), CATI (China Accreditation Test for Translators and Interpreters), BEC (Business English Certificate), waiting to fill up the space. These tests are much more expensive and demanding, which will become a new heavier burden for students both economically and mentally.

V. CONCLUSION

Extremism is never a scientific and sensible approach. A researcher should situate himself in a neutral but compassionate relationship toward the research subjects (Pillow, 2010). While CET has its own deficiency as discussed above, it might go too far to abolish it. There must be a third way in terms of solution. Moderate wind kindles, much puts out the fire. While balancing CET's positive and negative effects, a substantial reform might be a better way than abolishing or sticking to the status quo. The reform should go beyond the former ones in terms of both test construct and test administration.

First, for the sake of validity, spoken English must be included as one inseparable part of the entire test construct. Speaking test shouldn't be done separately like present, which makes no sense and add no value to CET's validity. The good news is that IB-CET has been developed, which includes 15% of speaking part. It consists of sentence repeating

for CET4, oral stating for CET6 and short-answer questions for both. At present there are only 146 institutions who have carried out IB-CET (Fan & Chen, 2013), which is such a small number comparing with the total higher institutions number of 2138. It is a big progress though. Many efforts are needed to make it mature and widen its scale. Hopefully IB-CET will take place of the paper-based test in the near future.

Second, in terms of test administration, its government-run nature should be changed. The government should withdraw its administrative role from CET and some social organization takes it over. The compelling power of the test will diminish, so it becomes a public test like IELTS or TOEFL. Students should have the right to choose to take part or not. The connection between higher institutions and CET should be cut off and CET passing rate shouldn't be used as an index to assess teaching quality. Only under this condition will the test-oriented education be turned around. Higher institutions will be free to adopt their own teaching models. Hence the College English reform will be deepened.

Last, it is very important that CET's orientation be changed from achievement to proficiency test. Theoretically present CET is an achievement test, however it doesn't test the textbooks' content and the society has seen it as a proficiency test. There is no point to stick to its theoretical orientation of achievement test when it actually is not. The change of orientation will also facilitate test construct which will be free from the restraint of *College English Curriculum Requirements*. In addition it caters to the need of some graduates who need a proof for their English proficiency.

With over 30 years of efforts in English language education in all levels of schools since China's Reform and Opening-up, the general English level of college students has improved a lot. The present status of College English is still mainly teaching general English, which has been sort of easy and less challenging to many students. It can't arouse students' interest in English learning. With the division of disciplines and labors becoming more intensive, general English can't meet students' demands in their future academic studies and specific job positions. English for Specific Purposes (ESP) might be the orientation of College English reform. As a result it is time for stakeholders to think about testing English for specific purposes.

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The Effect of Syntactic Simplicity and Complexity on the Readability of the Text

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Abstract—The purpose of this study is to investigate the effect of syntactic simplicity and complexity on the readability of the text. To achieve this, a set of standard reading comprehension passages were syntactically modified to develop three different versions of the same text (i.e., reduced, original, expanded) at different readability levels. A number of 257 senior Iranian EFL students participated in the study. The participants were divided into three proficiency levels of high, mid, and low, each taking the three different versions of the same text. The results revealed that there was no significant difference among the high proficient students' performance on the three versions. However, there were significant differences among the mid and low proficient students' performance on these versions. The results, therefore, indicate that syntactic complexity may create comprehension problems for mid and low proficient students, but not for high proficient ones. The results of this study can be useful for language teachers, syllabus designers and test developers in selecting suitable texts matched to the learners' ability level.

Index Terms—readability, syntactic simplicity, syntactic complexity, text accessibility

I. INTRODUCTION

Readability or "text difficulty" has been a major area of concern for all those who need to establish the appropriacy of a given text for a pedagogic purpose (Fulcher, 1997). Predicting accurate readability of text is of paramount importance to language practitioners to ensure that the input to which L2 readers are exposed matches their processing ability and provides the basis for the noticing, comprehension and intake of the L2 (Crossley, Greenfield, & McNamara, 2008). The readers are unlikely to adequately decipher the author's intended meaning if the readability level of texts exceed the readers' ability level (Badgett, 2010). Readability is a complex cognitive phenomenon. "The cognitive load of a text for a reader hinges on the characteristics of a text like lexical choice, syntactic and semantic complexity, discourse level complexity as well as on the background of the user" (Sinha, Sharma, Dasgupta, & Basu, 2012, p.1142). Reading comprehension, of course, does not merely depend on text variables, but it depends on reader variables as well. However, as the reader variables like background knowledge, motivation, previous reading experience, etc. are beyond the control of the teacher, text variables have received the most attention. (Fulcher, 1997).

II. REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

Readability of a text has been defined as the comprehensibility or the ease with which readers are able to read and understand a written text (Oakland & Lane, 2004; Badgett, 2010). It refers to how well a reader is able to comprehend the content of a particular text through reading. Studies have shown that easy to read texts enhance comprehension, retention, reading speed and reading persistence (Sinha, et al., 2012). In its broader sense, readability refers to the comprehensibility of written text (Homan, Hewit, & Linder, 1994). Readability describes the combination of structural and lexical difficulty of a text, as well as referring to the amount of new vocabulary and any new grammatical form present. The readability of text is one of the main criteria which should be taken into account when selecting texts to be used in the classroom (Berardo, 2006). Authors and material developers employ a variety of approaches and materials to assist L2 readers by making the texts more comprehensible. One such tool is the use of readability formulas which provide an indication of text readability based on the word and sentence length found in the text (Crossley, Allen, & McNamara, 2011). There have been, however, many criticisms leveled against these formulas due to their limited scope of data, low reliability, measuring surface-level features (i.e., syntax and vocabulary), and lack of credibility (Oakland & Lane, 2004) and ignoring comprehension factors (Crossley et al., 2011). Further, these formulas are text-based and do not take into account the reader-based and author-based factors (Kasule, 2011).

An area related to text readability is that of simplification which results in shorter sentences, deletion or rephrasing of complex structure and the use of low-frequency vocabulary in an attempt to increase overall text comprehensibility or make it more readable (Long & Ross, 1993 cited in O'Donnel, 2009). The purpose of simplified text is to provide L2 readers with texts which are more accessible and more comprehensible (Crossley, et al., 2011). According to Anani Sarab and Karimi (2008), the objective of simplification is to create language which can be better understood by non-native readers of English texts. Simplification, the most common type of modification, involves decreasing the linguistic complexity of syntactic construction and lexical items (Long, 2007 cited in O'Donnel, 2009). A number of studies (e.g. Crossley & McNamara, 2008; Leow, 1997; Yano, Long, & Ross, 1994) have indicated that L2 readers

better understand simplified texts in comparison with the unmodified versions of the same texts. Leow (1997) argued that simplification of input contributes to the L2 learners' linguistic system by providing more grammatical information, and thus facilitates comprehension in the reading process. By the same token, Yano et al. (1994) indicated that simplified texts lead to a better comprehension of texts in comparison to authentic texts. The L2 readers benefit more from simplified text because it provides more comprehensible input and because it is lexically, syntactically, and rhetorically less difficult than authentic texts (Crossley & McNamara, 2008).

Pedagogically simplified texts, albeit better understood by L2 readers, are not without some undesirable side effects. According to O' Donnell (2009), as a result of simplification, readers are denied access to lexical, linguistic structure and authentic models of language in which linguistic and cultural elements are presented. It may also have a negative impact on language acquisition since it affects linguistic element and content of text. Simplified texts, in fact, deprive learners of opportunities to learn the natural forms of language (Anani Sarab & Karimi, 2008). These texts also lack the cohesiveness of authentic texts because they are created using readability formulas which cut word and sentence length and delete connectives to shorten the intended texts (Crossley, Louwse, McCarthy, & McNamara, 2007).

Syntactic complexity refers to the range of forms that surface in language production and the degree of sophistication of such forms (Ortega, 2003, cited in Lu, 2008). It is one of the major factors which make a text less readable or difficult. An important factor associated with making a text syntactically difficult and more complex is sentence length which is measured in terms of average sentence length in words, number of clauses, letters, and syllables (Agnihorti & Khanna, 1992). Of course, there are a variety of other factors such as word difficulty and language structure, text structure, discourse style, genre, background knowledge, familiarity with the content, level of reasoning required, format and layout of text, and length of text which interact to influence the complexity of a particular text. (Hess & Biggam, 2004). In addition, elaboration, coherence and unity, audience appropriateness, quality of the writing and interestingness are other factors which influence text difficulty and accessibility (Graves & Graves, 2003).

There are a few studies which suggest that complex structures may not hinder comprehension in the reading process. For example, Anderson and Davison (1988) believed that the more complex structures are not necessarily harder to understand if the context contains discourse antecedents for some phrases which the syntax marks as special. Similarly, Crain and Shankweiler (1988) showed that complex structures may not impede comprehension, rather these structures may facilitate comprehension if used in contexts that meet the propositions on their use. Another study conducted about syntactic complexity and its relation to text comprehension revealed that "syntactic simplicity may not be an aid, but a hindrance to comprehension since simplified syntax may decrease explicit textual cohesion" (Carrell, 1987, P. 30).

It follows that investigating the difficulties EFL students encounter in reading process is of great significance. One of the most important factors contributing to students' success in reading process relates to the selection of texts at appropriate difficulty level. Thus, establishing text difficulty is relevant to English teachers and syllabus designers who wish to select appropriate materials for learners at variety of ability levels and other purposes. They also need to know whether pedagogically simplified texts enhance learners' performance in reading. This study, therefore, intends to shed some lights on the effect of syntactic simplicity and complexity on the readability of the text which may facilitate or impede comprehension process by making a text syntactically more readable or less readable. To investigate this problem and achieve the purpose of the study, the following research questions were proposed:

1. Is there any difference in the performance of Iranian high proficient EFL students on different versions of the same text at different readability levels?
2. Is there any difference in the performance of Iranian mid proficient EFL students on different versions of the same text at different readability levels?
3. Is there any difference in the performance of Iranian low proficient EFL students on different versions of the same text at different readability levels?

III. METHOD

A. Participants

A number of 257 EFL students participated in the study. They were all Iranian male and female EFL undergraduate students. All the participants were over the age of 22 and they were senior EFL students. 139 of these participants participated in the pilot study which took place in two stages, 131 participated in the validation process, and the rest of the students served as the sample of the actual study.

B. Instruments

Two instruments were utilized in the study. The first one was a standard language proficiency test, namely, TOEFL which was used to serve as an indicator of participants' proficiency level and as a criterion to validate the two newly-developed tests. The second test was a set of standard reading comprehension texts from which two other versions with different syntactic characteristics were developed resulting in three different sets of reading comprehension passages.

C. Procedure

The first step of the study was to develop three syntactically different reading comprehension tests. To accomplish this, a set of standard reading comprehension passages matched to the students' language ability level were selected

from an original TOEFL. In the next step, these passages were syntactically modified to develop two other versions of these texts. In modifying the texts, a number of syntactic criteria such as readability level, average sentence length, number of sentences, number of relative clauses, types of sentences, etc. were taken into consideration and the texts were modified as follows:

The first version or more readable version (reduced) was developed by splitting up long and complex or compound-complex sentences in the original version into short and simple sentences in order to lower the readability levels of the texts. The syntactic characteristics of this version are presented in Table 1.

TABLE 1.
THE SYNTACTIC CHARACTERISTICS OF THE REDUCED VERSION

Syntactic Indicator		passage 1	Passage 2	Passage 3
1	Fog Index readability level	8.23	10.76	8.4
2	average sentence length	12	12.91	9.77
3	number of sentences	24	26	31
4	number of words	288	310	303
5	number of relative clauses	2	3	0
6	number of passive verbs	5	8	2
7	types of sentences:			
	simple	19	1	1
	compound	0	1	1
	complex	4	8	1
	compound-complex	0	0	0

The second version (original) was not modified and remained intact. The syntactic characteristics of this version are presented in Table 2.

TABLE 2.
THE SYNTACTIC CHARACTERISTICS OF THE ORIGINAL VERSION.

Syntactic Indicator		passage1	Passage 2	Passage 3
1	Fog Index readability level	11.69	13.81	13.01
2	average sentence length	18.6	23.92	20.26
3	number of sentences	15	24	15
4	number of words	279	305	304
5	number of relative clauses	5	4	6
6	number of passive verbs	3	3	4
7	types of sentences:			
	simple	5	5	7
	compound	0	1	2
	complex	10	5	4
	compound-complex	0	4	2

The third version or less readable version (expanded) was developed by combining simple, short and compound sentences in the original version in order to form complex or compound-complex sentences in an attempt to increase the readability levels of the texts. The syntactic characteristics of this version are shown in Table 3.

TABLE 3.
THE SYNTACTIC CHARACTERISTICS OF THE EXPANDED VERSION.

Syntactic Indicator		Passage 1	Passage 2	passage 3
1	Fog Index readability level	19.56	19.56	16.09
2	average sentence length	37	32.1	26.76
3	number of sentences	8	10	12
4	number of words	296	321	321
5	number of relative clauses	12	10	10
6	number of passive verbs	6	8	4
7	types of sentences:			
	simple	1	0	0
	compound	0	2	1
	complex	5	5	6
	compound-complex	4	3	5

It should be pointed out that vocabulary and content were held constant across the three versions. The texts were modified only syntactically, i.e., the focus was mainly on sentence reduction and sentence expansion.

Pre-testing: The reduced and expanded versions of the tests were pre-tested with two samples of students whose characteristics were similar to those participating in the actual study to ensure that the items have not been affected by syntactic modification of the texts and that no clues have been provided which may help students get the correct answer. The results of item analysis performed on these tests revealed that a number of items did not function satisfactorily. The deficient items were identified and modified. Then, the new versions of tests were again pretested with samples of 32 and 38 students, respectively. The item analysis revealed that all the items except two or three functioned satisfactorily. These deficient items were again revised.

Reliability of the tests: The reliability indexes of the reduced and expanded versions, computed using K.R.21 formula of reliability, turned out to be .73 and .76 for reduced and expanded versions respectively.

Criterion-Related Validity: To establish the validity of the tests, students’ scores on these tests were correlated with their scores on the criterion measure (TOEFL) which was administered along with the reduced and expanded versions. A sample of 68 took the reduced versions and 63 took the expanded versions of the texts. The validity of the tests computed using Pearson’s Product Moment Correlation Formula turned out to be .71 and .74 for the reduced and expanded versions respectively. The reliability and validity of the tests are shown in Table 4.

TABLE 4.
THE RELIABILITY AND VALIDITY OF THE READING TESTS.

Variable	reduced	expanded
reliability: r (KR-21)	.73	.76
validity: r xy	.71	.74

In the next step, these three different versions were administered to a sample of approximately 257 subjects. 88 of these participants took the reduced form, 91 took expanded form, and 78 took original form. In addition to these three versions of the same texts, students in each group took the language proficiency test (i.e., TOEFL). Therefore, each student had two scores: One on the TOEFL, and the other on one of the three different versions.

To achieve the purpose of the study and answer the research question, the subjects had to be divided into three homogeneous proficiency levels of low, mid, and high. To this end, the Standard Deviation and the Mean of the students’ scores on TOEFL were computed. The results are shown in Table 5.

TABLE 5.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS FOR TOEFL.

Variable	N	SD	X
reduced	88	15.42	50.7
original	78	14.82	50.11
expanded	91	16.08	49.15

The participants in each group were divided into three proficiency levels by taking SD and of each group, i.e., the participants whose TOEFL scores were between half SD above and half SD below mean ($\pm 1/2$ SD) were taken as mid proficient group, those obtaining scores above $+ 1/2$ SD as high proficient, and those obtaining scores below $- 1/2$ SD as low proficient group. The number of participants at each level and their mean scores on each version are presented in Tables 6, 7 and 8.

TABLE 6.
THE HIGH PROFICIENT LEVEL

		version	N	
Level	High proficient	reduced	27	11.48
		original	24	12.04
		expanded	29	10.75

TABLE 7.
THE MID PROFICIENT LEVEL

		version	N	
Level	Mid proficient	reduced	36	9.88
		original	34	10.23
		expanded	36	8.94

TABLE 8.
THE LOW PROFICIENT LEVEL

		version	N	
Level	Low proficient	reduced	25	7.12
		original	21	7.04
		expanded	26	5.38

In order to ensure the homogeneity of the subjects at each proficiency level, three separate one-way ANOVA were carried out as follows:

TABLE 9.
ONE-WAY ANOVA FOR HOMOGENEITY OF HIGH PROFICIENT LEVEL.

Source of Variation	D.F	SS	MS	F	Fcrit
Between Groups	2	124.7448	62.3724	1.3436	3.11
Within Groups	77	3574.4552	46.4215		
Total	79	3699.2000			

TABLE 10.
ONE-WAY ANOVA FOR HOMOGENEITY OF MID PROFICIENT LEVEL.

Source of variation	D.F	SS	MS	F	Fcrit
Between Groups	2	69.3011	34.6505	1.5413	3.09
Within Groups	103	2315.6046	22.4816		
Total	105	2384.9057			

TABLE 11.
ONE-WAY ANOVA FOR HOMOGENEITY OF LOW PROFICIENT LEVEL

Source of Variation	D.F	SS	MS	F	Fcrit
Between Groups	2	107.4929	53.7464	.6741	3.13
Within Groups	69	5501.6182	79.7336		
Total	71	5609.1111			

The above Tables reveal that in all the three levels, the F ratio did not equal or exceed the F critical value implying that there are no significant differences among the participants at each proficiency level and that they are homogeneous in terms of language proficiency.

IV. RESULTS

In order to come up with reasonable answers to the research questions, the students' performance on the three different versions of the same texts at each proficiency level had to be compared. Therefore, three separate One-Way ANOVA were run in order to determine whether there were significant differences among the three groups (i.e., reduced, original, expanded) at each proficiency level. These analyses are discussed below.

To answer the first research question, a One-Way ANOVA was carried out to compare the performance of the high proficient students on the reduced, original, and expanded versions. The results of this analysis are shown in Table 12.

TABLE 12.
ONE-WAY ANOVA FOR SDRCT BY HIGH PROFICIENT LEVEL.

Source of Variation	D.F	SS	MS	F	F crit
Between Groups	2	26.3325	13.1663	2.2647	3.11
Within Groups	77	447.6550	5.8137		
Total	79	473.9875			

Table 12 shows that the F ratio did not exceed the F critical implying that there is no significant difference among the high proficient students on the reduced, original and expanded versions of the tests. Therefore, the first null hypothesis could not be rejected because the high proficient students' did not perform significantly differently on the three versions of the same texts.

To answer the second research question, another One-Way ANOVA was carried out in order to compare the performance of mid proficient students on the three versions of the tests. The results of this analysis are presented in Table 13.

TABLE 13.
ONE-WAY ANOVA FOR SDRCT BY MID PROFICIENT LEVEL.

Source of Variation	D.F	SS	MS	F	F crit
Between Groups	2	31.5322	15.7661	5.0189	3.09
Within Groups	103	323.5621	3.1414		
Total	105	355.0943			

As the Table shows the F ratio exceeded the F critical value implying that there are significant differences among mid proficient students' performance on the reduced, original, expanded versions. Therefore, the second null hypothesis is safely rejected. A post-hoc analysis, Scheffe test, was conducted to find out where the differences lay. The results of this analysis are presented in Table 14.

TABLE 14.
SCHEFFE TEST

	G	G	G
	r	r	r
	p	p	p
Mean	Group 3	2	1
8.9444	Gtp 3		
9.8889	Gtp 2		
10.2353	Gtp 1	*	

* Denotes groups significantly different at the .05
1 = original 2 = reduced 3 = expanded

The Table shows that the mid proficient students in the original group performed significantly differently from those in the reduced and expanded groups.

To answer the third research question, another One-Way ANOVA was run in order to compare the low proficient students' performance on the three tests. The results presented in Table 15 reveal that F ratio exceeded the F critical value implying that the three groups performed significantly differently from one another. Therefore, the third null hypothesis is also safely rejected.

TABLE 15.
ONE-WAY ANOVA BY LOW PROFICIENT LEVEL .

Source of Variation	D.F	SS	MS	F	Fcrit
Between Groups	2	48.1982	24.0991	12.8161	3.13
Within Groups	69	129.7462	1.8804		
Total	71	177.9444			

A Scheffe Test was conducted to find out the location of differences among the three groups. The results of this analysis are presented in Table 16.

TABLE 16.
SCHEFFE TEST

	G	G	G
	r	r	r
	p	p	p
Mean	Group 3	2	1
5.3846	Grp 3		
7.0476	Grp 2 *		
7.1200	Grp 1 *		

* Denotes groups significantly different at the .05
1 = original 2 = reduced 3 = expanded

The Table indicates that the reduced and original groups performed significantly differently from the expanded group.

V. DISCUSSION

The purpose of the study was to investigate whether different versions of the same text at different readability levels produced any significant differences among the EFL students' performance in reading comprehension tests. The results of the study revealed that there were no significant differences among the high proficient students' performance on the three different versions of the same texts. This means that these students performed similarly better on the three syntactically modified texts. Therefore, pedagogically modified texts were not effective in ameliorating high proficient learners' comprehension and, in fact, these students could benefit from textual cohesion and complex grammatical relations within the text to decipher the author's intended meaning. However, with regard to mid and low proficient, the results indicated that the students' performance on the original and reduced versions of the texts was significantly different from their performance on the expanded version. This means that unlike the high proficient level, the students at the mid and low levels performed better on the original and simplified versions which were considered to be more readable than the expanded one. Thus, syntactic modification in the form of shortening sentences and lowering the readability level of text promote elementary and intermediate level readers' comprehension of reading material. These results are in line with a recent study conducted by Baleghizadeh and Borzabadi (2007 cited in Anani Sarab & Karimi, 2008) who found that linguistic modifications were more helpful for low proficient learners and that the high proficient learners did not benefit from text simplification. Therefore, simplified texts could be conducive in L2 instruction for lower and mid proficient learners. The results of this study are in contrast to those which suggested that syntactic complexity was not a hindrance to readers' comprehension in the reading process (e.g., Agnihorti & Khanna, 1992).

VI. PEDAGOGICAL IMPLICATIONS

The results of this study will provide language teachers with useful information as to the difficulty level of the materials to be presented to learners at different proficiency levels. For example, the language teachers will take into account the types of texts (i.e., authentic vs. simplified) to use in the classroom and will definitely use authentic text for pedagogic purposes at advanced levels without any linguistic simplifications. However, for mid and low proficient learners, they may need to modify the texts to match them to the learners' ability level. The EFL language teachers and language testers will also be able to consider the difficulty level of a single-sentence test items by ascertaining their readability levels using special readability formulas. Syllabus designers will also be able to select appropriate materials at a variety of ability levels to be included in the students' text books.

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A Comparative Study of Word Frequency and Text Coverage between English and Chinese for College English Vocabulary Acquisition

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Abstract—This comparative study is based on the English and Chinese corpora of more than one million tokens collected by the author in person and finds that English enjoys a large vocabulary but relatively a far low word frequency and text coverage, compared with Chinese. In the English corpus of more than one million tokens, nearly eighty percent types appear fewer than ten times, and the number of the types with the frequency above ten times is too small to reach the 95% text coverage, which is generally seen as the least required for reading comprehension. Then, this paper infers that, for College English learners in China, if they follow the approach of incidental vocabulary acquisition to pick up their new words from reading, they will have to add up their reading outside classroom to a quantity of more than 660,000 words, eleven times as much as the reading in class. That is to say, they will have to read 800 more texts with 800 words each after class, or have to read another ten texts in their free time after they finish learning one text in class. Undoubtedly, this is a reading load too heavy for them to bear, and reveals that the approach of incidental vocabulary acquisition is not feasible for College English teaching and learning.

Index Terms—comparative study between English and Chinese, word frequency, text coverage, vocabulary acquisition, College English learning

I. INTRODUCTION

A. *About Word Frequency and Text Coverage Studies between English and Chinese Vocabulary*

It is generally believed that English has a large vocabulary, but it is hardly realized that the language accordingly has a small word frequency and text coverage. Few scholars could clearly tell how small the frequency and coverage are, and what effects they have on College English vocabulary acquisition. Also, few Chinese scholars of College English learning research could actually tell what is about the Chinese vocabulary, and what frequency and coverage the Chinese vocabulary has. And so, few persuasive papers on vocabulary acquisition study as a good guideline to College English teaching learning in China could be seen really.

In fact, word frequency and text coverage play a much important role on vocabulary acquisition, especially to those learning English as a foreign language (EFL). But unfortunately so far, such studies could still hardly be found in the fields of foreign language vocabulary acquisition in China today.

B. *About Vocabulary Acquisition Studies*

How to acquire a large vocabulary for College English learners? There are two quite different views on that question. One is incidental vocabulary acquisition (IVA) (Nagy, Heman and Anderson, 1985), and the other is intentional language learning (ILL) (Laufer & Hulstijn, 2001). The so-called IVA is widely claimed that the English learners as a foreign language could incidentally pick up English new words which they have encountered with many times during the natural reading, a reading just for information or message rather than language skills (Laufer, 1998). On the contrary, the approach of ILL requires learners to try hard intentionally to learn and memorize the new words while doing their reading. Those scholars who are in favor of IVA call the new word learned with IVA a by-product, and claim it is much better than the intentional language learning.

It is held that Nagy, Heman and Anderson (1985) mentioned IVA first in 1985. About 2000 or so, some Chinese scholars in the field of English teaching and research began to pay attention to it, and then some IVA research papers have gradually appeared and got more and more attention since. Gai Shuhua (2003), Duan Shiping & Yan Chensong (2004), Hong & Tian Qiuxiang (2005) and so on, are those scholars whose papers have attracted much more attention since then. Gai Shuhua, one of the earlier scholars introducing the IVA researches inside and outside China, conducted an empirical study on English major students (Luo Jian-ping, 2013). Duan & Yan (2004) concluded from their research that IVA would be better approach because it showed a better result. However, some other scholars also gave their different opinions. Li & Tian (2005) suggested that IVA only means to come across new words unintentionally from reading, and there is no reason to put it against the approach of ILL, and for English as foreign language learners, it is better to focus on learning and memorizing new words intentionally when they are doing reading. But compared with IVA, voice for ILL is much smaller.

The idea of IVA has strongly been influencing the way of vocabulary acquisition for College English teaching and learning in China schools at all levels for more than 20 years. About 1980s, Gui Shichun, an influential professor of Guangdong University of Foreign Language Studies, claimed in his research that, the way to improve your test score is to enlarge your English vocabulary and the way to enlarge your English vocabulary is to do large reading (Huang Ling-yan, 2013). Then the question is, how much could the learners have to do their reading? Unfortunately, still no any exact answer. In fact, few learners could do a large English reading during their school years, but on the contrary, much more learners could not pick up their vocabulary large enough by means of IVA to improve their CET test scores?

C. What Poor CET 4 Test Score Feedback Data Reflect

Since the CET Band 4 and 6 began in the mid of 1980s, the average test scores of the test takers, or the College English learners, have long remained in a low state, according to the feedback data of CET 4 in recent years. See the following tables from Luo’s study (2013):

TABLE 1.
THE MEAN SCORES OF CET4 IN RECENT YEARS

Test Date	All-M (SD)	Un-M (SD)	211-M (SD)	Non-M (SD)
2012.6	391 (63)	400 (65)	439 (82)	396 (61)
2011.6	390 (62)	399 (65)	433 (79)	396 (62)
2010.12	386 (66)	396 (69)	436 (85)	391 (65)
2010.6	387 (69)	398 (73)	436 (88)	394 (69)

In Table 1, according to Luo (2013), All-M is the *mean of all test-takers*, SD refers to *standard deviation*, Un-M is the *mean of the undergraduates from all test-takers*, 211-M is the *mean of the undergraduates only from 211-universities* (so-called key universities), and so Non-M indicates the *mean of the undergraduates from the non-211-universities* (non-key universities). From the CET4 score system, the CET pass line is 425, the highest score is 710, and the lowest score is 220.

TABLE 2.
THE NUMBERS AND RATES OF THE UNDERGRADUATES WITH A NON-ZERO SCORE

Test Date	All U-takers	≥430 / %	630-710 / %	330-220 / %
2012.6	3614882	323764 / 29.5%	3898 / 0.1%	456826 / 12.6%
2011.6	3420565	286042 / 28.3%	4277 / 0.1%	430153 / 12.6%
2010.12	3572224	277713 / 28.6%	3107 / 0.1%	594345 / 16.6%
2010.6	3313653	256240 / 30.3%	4792 / 0.1%	582239 / 17.6%

Table 2 is about the numbers and rates of the test takers who are the undergraduates with a non-zero score from the test. In that table, “*All U-takers*” refers to the number of test takers who are four-year undergraduates from universities and colleges with scores above zero, and “*≥430 / %*” shows the number and rate of the those whose scores are over 430, which suggests that they have passed the test, and “*630-710 / %*” refers to the number and rate of the test takers who get the top score, and “*330-220 / %*” suggests the number and rate of those whose scores stay on the bottom in the grade system.

What deep and serious matter can be seen clearly from the tables above? In China, English teaching and learning have long been staying in a low level, and what’s more, it would be much surprising to see that far more than half of the undergraduates fail the test every time, even though they have learned that foreign language for at least eight years. So, what’s wrong? What does it strongly reflect?

Again, according to the general viewpoints, the low test score is due to a small vocabulary, and the small vocabulary results from a small reading. And so it can be reasonably inferred that learners could not enlarge their reading actually, which causes them fail to pick up their vocabulary large enough by means of IVA, and then that causes them to get a low test score. If so, then questions rise again: Why are the learners not able to have enough reading? Is there anything wrong with the idea of IVA for College English teaching and learning?

D. Wrong Idea with IVA for College English Teaching and Learning

There are at least two wrong things for the matter. One is their neglecting the influence of English small word frequency and text coverage on IVA, compared with Chinese. Another is the negative transfer effect of the idea of their mother language learning.

To pick up a new word from IVA, some scholars (Zahar, Cobb & Spada, 2001) reveal that the word frequency needs from 6 to 20 times’ encountering, and the average is 10 times (Saragi, Nation & Meister, 1978), and 8 times at least is needed (Horst, Cobb & Meara, 1998; Waring & Takaki, 2003). But few failed to study the question further that how large a reading is needed to meet the average required frequency of 10 times because they hold that it is just the way that they have learned their mother tongue. So, it is not strange that quite a few scholars hold that IVA is feasible to English learning as foreign language. They take it for granted that a considerable part of the EFL learner’s vocabulary is made up of such by-products from reading, and IVA becomes an only way to enlarge their vocabulary (Nagy, Hermann & Anderson, 1985; Nation, 2001; Wu Wei & Xu Hong, 2006). They did not realize that a much large English reading would actually be an insurmountable obstacle to meet the frequency requirement in EFL learning.

II. RESEARCH DESIGN

A. Questions of this Comparative Study

(1) What is about the English vocabulary, word frequency and text coverage, compared with the Chinese ones?

(2) How much reading should the College English learners do in order to pick up a required vocabulary by means of IVA?

B. Purposes of this Comparative Study

Usually, it is hard to tell what is large and what is small without comparison. So this is one of the paper's purposes. By a comparative study between English and Chinese, it will not be difficult to find what are the English word frequency and text coverage, and it will also not be difficult to find whether it is suitable to apply the IVA to College English learning. Besides, even though VIA might be feasible to mother tongue, or Chinese, it would not mean that it also feasible to College English learning, which consists of another purpose of this paper.

C. Methodologies of this Comparative Study

(1) Corpus used

Two corpora are made up for this comparative study, one is English corpus, and the other is Chinese one. English and Chinese reading materials are collected according to the principles: texts used in textbooks of College English, Chinese texts used in middle school textbooks, and both English and Chinese stories, news, reports, academic literatures and so on. The total tokens of both English and Chinese reach to more than one million respectively.

(2) Word counts

Chinese words are somehow different from the English ones. Chinese words are made up of Chinese characters. Sometimes, one Chinese word is made up from one Chinese character, but sometimes one Chinese word is from more than one characters. So, to made it simple or clear, some Chinese scholars prefer to apply one theory called character-based theory to show the difference from the western languages. Xu Tongqiang (2005), a professor of Beijing University, argues, "The Chinese character is a basic unit of Chinese structure". Also, "The frequency of character is one important characteristic for use of Chinese" (Li Guoying & Zhou Xiaowen, 2011). And so, "the statistics of Chinese character frequency is of much value to language teaching" (Fu Yonghe, 1985).

Thus, in this paper, the word counts for Chinese corpus are based on character units, and for English are based on word units, not on lemmas nor word families.

(3) Statistics of word frequency and text coverage

This paper uses the corpus software called Antconc to count the word or character frequency, and uses another tool Excel to count the test coverage. Both tools turn out sound and persuasive statistic data for this comparative study.

III. STATISTIC RESULTS OF THIS COMPARISON

A. Word Frequency Compared between English and Chinese

The following table shows the statistic outcomes of frequency of both English words and Chinese characters. The percentage in the bracket refers to the rate of the types which are used either in the English corpus or in the Chinese corpus, and both numbers and rates are the types which are accumulated other than those in the line "1-f ws".

TABLE 3.
FREQUENCY OF ENGLISH WORDS AND CHINESE CHARACTERS

	English	Chinese
Tokens	1,015,941	1,025,527
Types	35416	4513
F ≥ 50	2108 (5.9%)	1704 (37.7%)
F ≥ 15	5494 (15.5%)	2574 (57.0%)
F ≥ 10	7370 (20.8%)	2887 (63.9%)
F ≥ 5	12034 (33.9%)	3392 (75.1%)
1-f ws	13096 (36.9%)	542 (10.1%)

The table above is also from a study of this author (Luo Jian-ping, 2013), in which the line "1-f ws" refers to "Hepax Legomena", which means the word which just appears only one time in each corpus.

B. Text Coverage Compared between English and Chinese Vocabulary

The following Table 4 is a comparison of text coverage of vocabulary between English and Chinese (Luo Jian-ping, 2013). In that table, "Ws or chs" means English words or Chinese characters; "En txt coverage" means English text coverage, and "Ch txt coverage" is Chinese text coverage. "First 50" refers to the first 50 most often used words which are sorted according to the frequency, and so it is with the other "First 100", "First 1000" and so on.

TABLE 4.
TEXT COVERAGE OF VOCABULARY OF ENGLISH AND CHINESE

Ws or chs	En txt coverage	Ch txt coverage
First 50	43.3%	29.1%
First 100	50.9%	40.5%
First 1000	74.1%	90.3%
First 1500	78.4%	95.4%
First 2000	81.4%	97.8%
First 3000	85.5%	99.5%
First 4000	88.1%	99.9%
First 5000	90.0%	—
First 10000	94.9%	—

By the way, the data from Table 4 are from the same corpora as Table 3, also with more than one million tokens respectively for English and Chinese.

IV. DISCUSSION

A. English Has a Much Lower Word Frequency and Text Coverage

As Table 3 reveals, the total tokens of both English and Chinese are nearly the same in numbers, but the numbers of types are quite different. English has far more types than Chinese, and means to have to use more words, nearly 8 times as Chinese, which clearly shows that English has a much larger vocabulary than Chinese. For word frequency, the rate is much lower in English than that in Chinese. It is seen clearly that nearly four fifths of English words have to enjoy a much lower frequency, lower than 10 times. According to the inference from the statistics above, each word in such a large vocabulary size would certainly take up a much low word frequency. Averagely, the frequency of every English word is 28.6 times, while every Chinese character has a frequency of 227.2 times. For IVA approach, it could also be seen that only 20.8 percent of words show up more than 10 times, which means nearly 80 percent of words cannot enjoy enough frequency to be picked up from a natural reading. But on the contrary, more than 60 percent of Chinese characters share their frequency over 10 times.

For the text coverage, the table tells that, for the first 100 words, English has a higher text coverage than Chinese, but soon it lags behind. Wholly, English text coverage is much lower than Chinese does. As Table 4 shows, to the 95 percent text coverage, which mean the least required for reading comprehension (Schmitt & McCarthy, 1997), English has to use up more than ten thousand words, while Chinese only use one thousand and five hundred characters.

From the tables, seemingly there are more than 7300 English words with a frequency of above 10 times, which makes it possible to pick up them from just reading, but they only make up so small a part of the vocabulary size (20.8%). The number is far away to meet the requirement of 95 percent text coverage, the least required ability of reading. On the other hand, there is one third of English words that only appear one time (36.9%) so that it would be impossible to be picked up just from reading.

So, it could be concluded that English has a much large vocabulary, but a much low word frequency and text coverage, which would certainly decide an unfavorable condition for the College English learners to follow IVA approach.

B. How Much Reading Needs for College English Learning by Means of IVA?

According to the College English Requirement, there are about 4700 English words which all the College English learners should learn and master (The Chinese Minister of Education, 2007). In concrete terms, New Horizon College English, a College English course book that is widely used in many universities and colleges in China, there are about 5000 new English words for the learners to learn. But in the course book, there are only about 800 words which appear more than ten times in frequency, which means there are more than 4000 words that the learners could not pick up and accumulate from just reading the book. So, what could be done? Adding more reading outside the class is the only choice by those who follow the approach of IVA. But how much reading should they add?

According to this author's study, another group of statistic data from the same English corpus shows that, in order to give every one of the required 5000 words a chance to show up ten times at least, the reading quantity out of classrooms should be added up to more than 660,000 words, eleven times as much as the in-class reading for the College English learners. In another word, these learners must read 800 more texts with 800 words each in their after-class free time. Or, when they finish reading one text in class, there are still another ten texts waiting for them to read after class.

Obviously, is it possible for these learners to do that? The answer is NO. Even though they are interested in reading so much, they could not have so much time for that job. As non-English majors, these English learners have many other subjects waiting for them, and that is much impractical to force them to put so much time on this non-major course (Luo Jian-ping, 2013).

C. Negative Transfer of College English Vocabulary Acquisition

As the statistics shows, the number of the often-used Chinese characters is relative much small, compared with that of English words. In fact, as Chinese dictionaries show, in *New Chinese Dictionary*, there are only about ten thousand

Chinese characters in it, and in *Modern Chinese Dictionary of Words and Expressions*, there just collects fifty-six thousand Chinese words or expressions. Thus, different from English, Chinese characters would have a much more high frequency and text coverage, and in fact, only 1500 often-used characters have covered the text to the rate of 95%, seen from the above tables. Then, the certain number of characters would have chance to show up much more frequently in a limited reading material, and therefore it would be possible for a Chinese beginner to pick up them from his or her relative small daily reading. So, in history, Chinese has a learning tradition of vocabulary acquisition called “dushu shizi”, which means learning words just through reading. That might be the early IVA of Chinese style.

Unfortunately, quite a few scholars of College English teaching failed to notice the difference between Chinese and English, and took it for granted that the Chinese students could follow the same way to acquire English vocabulary just through not much reading quantity to learn College English. Their empirical researches or experiments focused more on the so-called effectiveness of IVA with just one or two reading passages or novels and then they strongly claimed that it was good to College English teaching and learning, even though they found the efficiency was too limited. Only a few researches once noticed the restriction of word frequency on the efficiency of IVA which was warned in their researches (Luo Weihua & Deng, Yaochen, 2009), but their further probing is not seen.

Under such a wrong influence of IVA over College English teaching and learning, the result is unavoidably a sad story that the students' vocabulary is too small to do well in their College English tests for a long time.

D. Necessary of ILL for College English Learning

One more problem not in favor of the approach of IVA as seen from the above statistics in Table 3 and Table 4 is that the English word frequency is not only much low, but also highly discrete. The frequency of English word is distributed highly among the first one thousand words, but scatters quickly away and drops sharply from the second and the third and the other thousand words, which agrees with the findings of Gui Shichun (2010) and means they have fewer and fewer frequency times encountering with their readers.

Also, there is still another restriction. Before using the approach of IVA, the English learners should first have a basic vocabulary. Li & Tian (2005) hold that the application of IVA requires the student at least to learn 2000 words first of all; Gai (2003) claims that “2000 to 3000 words are wanted first, and for College English learning, 5000 to 6000 words have to be the base for IVA”. Some other scholars suggest that the EFL learners could not have a good understanding of what they have read nor have acquired any new words from reading as the English native speakers do until they have a good command of at least 5000 word families first (Coady, & Huckin, 1997; Nation, 2001). In all, mastering the first several thousand words is the first most crucial thing to do before using IVA” (Nagy, Hermann & Anderson, 1985; Nation, 2001).

Accordingly, it is firmly believed that ILL approach is undoubtedly more feasible than IVA approach for College English learners. A foreign language would not really be learned incidentally (Luo Jian-ping, 2013). So in reading, to consult a dictionary or combine IVA with ILL has proved to be necessary (Gao Xinhua, 2010), and in class teaching, modes of new words presentation have turned out to be much effective in class teaching (Zeng Jian-xiang, 2007). One scholar from Guangdong University of Petrochemical Technology strongly hold in her research paper that teachers should use strategies to help learners to memorize new English words intentionally rather than incidentally, which could actually help to arouse their interest more in learning (Huang Ling-yan, 2013).

V. CONCLUSION

This paper has focused on the discussion of the feasibility of incidental vocabulary acquisition for College English teaching and learning with the help of the comparative study based on the English and Chinese corpora of more than one million tokens collected by the author himself. This study finds that English enjoys a large vocabulary but a far low word frequency and text coverage relatively, compared with Chinese. In the English corpus of more than one million tokens, nearly eighty percent types appear fewer than ten times, and the number of the types with a frequency above ten times is too small to reach the 95% text coverage, which is generally seen as the least required for reading comprehension. Then, this paper suggests that, for College English learning in China, if the learners follow the approach of incidental vocabulary acquisition to pick up their new words from reading, they will have to add up their reading outside classroom to a quantity of more than 660,000 words, eleven times as much as that reading in class. That is, they will have to read 800 more texts with 800 words each after class, or have to read another ten texts in their free time after they finish learning one text in class. Undoubtedly, this is a reading load too heavy for them to bear. As a conclusion, this paper strongly argues and proves that the approach of intentional vocabulary learning is rather feasible for College English teaching and learning than that of incidental vocabulary acquisition.

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The Role of Teacher's Self-efficacy as a Predictor of Iranian EFL Teacher's Burnout

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Abstract—In foreign language setting, there are some social psychological variables that can highly influence on the teachers' and learners performance. One of these important variables in language pedagogy is Self-efficacy “an individual's confidence in his/her ability to engage in the social interactional tasks necessary to initiate and maintain interpersonal relationships” (Bandura, 2006). Another influential factor that is importance in teaching contexts is burnout. Burn out is defined as a result of long term job-related stress, especially among human service workers such as teachers (Jennett, Harris, & Mesibov, 2003). This study, which utilized qualitative _ quantitative methodologies, aimed at measuring the relationship between the self-efficacy of Iranian English teachers and their feelings of burnout. The needed data were gathered through the application of the two questionnaires: The Maslach Burnout Inventory (MBI; Maslach & Jackson 1981, 1986) and a researchers-made questionnaire of self-efficacy. The participants are as 616 professional experienced teachers from both genders and different age groups, having university education from different provinces of Iran. The SPSS software (version 16) was used to change the data into numerical interpretable data. To determine the relationship between self-efficacy and teachers' burnout, correlational analysis was employed. The result showed that the participants' self-efficacy has a reverse relationship with their burnout. In addition, a significant relationship was observed between teachers' reports of burnout, and their years of experiences.

Index Terms—burnout, self-efficacy, ELT teachers

I. INTRODUCTION

Stress and intension seems to be of the most challenging features of professional life these days. Researcher's studies confirmed that stress is an important influential factor of all contexts and work places. There is significant studies confirmed that stress is an important influential factor of all contexts and work places. There is significant evidence that interpersonal support at work, particularly from the school principal, plays a key role in highlighting job stress and burnout in teachers (Leithwood, Menzies, Jantzi, & Leithwood, 1996).

Jennett, Harris, and Mesibov, 2003, defined burnout as a result of long term occupational stress, especially among human service workers such as teachers (Jennett, Harris, Mesibov, 2003).

As cited in Martin, Sass, and Schmitt, 2012, teacher intended-to-leave is very harmful to the profession. In the United States almost about one quarter of novice educators are not willing to continue their job after three years and by the fifth year this increases to 40%. (Milner & Woolfolk Hoy, 2003; National Center for Education Statistics, 2004; National Commission on Teaching and America's Future, 2003)

Another significant factor in any job success is self-efficacy that could be defined as people beliefs about their own abilities to think, plan, monitor, organize, and perform activities needed in educational settings (Bandura 1997, 2006).

This study aimed at investigating the extent to which teachers participating in their teaching classes leads to teacher burnout. Furthermore, the link between EFL teachers' self-efficacy and their burnout were examined with regard to demographics.

Researchers in this study try to find out how Iranian EFL teachers' self-efficacy is related to their burnout. Consequently, this study addresses the following research questions:

- 1) Is there any significant relationship between teachers' self-efficacy, and their feelings of burnout?
- 2) Is there any significant relationship between teachers' burnout with regard to their level of qualification?
- 3) Is there any significant relationship between teachers' burnout and their field of the study?

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

In any classroom settings, one important question may always be raised: why some of teachers could tolerate the high level of stress and succeed in their job while some others could not stand expectations imposed on them. The first

reason may be teacher self-efficacy as a belief in one's ability (Gavora, 2011). This kind of belief affects on ones feeling and related to hopelessness, anxiety, and depression. Another reason may lie in teacher burnout that is caused by a number of negative factors, including low levels of self-efficacy.

A. *Teachers' Burnout*

Freudenberger (1974) coined the term "burnout" as the result of long time hard working and overextension. As cited in Devos, Dupriez & Paquay, 2012, the first years of teaching are a difficult period. Inexperienced teachers come into a novel world; meet new things, unexpected condition and challenges. They are going to meet dissimilar types of difficulties and problems, such as controlling classroom discipline, assessing learners' work, motivating learners (Britt, 1997; Ganser, 1999; Melnick & Meister, 2008; Veenman, 1984). Still, while this initial stage is frightening for some, it is a satisfying experience for others (Hebert & Worthy, 2001). How could this be clarified?

Besides the individual characteristics of the novice teachers, the social working conditions (e.g. relationships with colleagues,) is a key for understanding how teachers deal with this difficult period.

Schutz and Zembylas (2009) believe that high attrition rates among novice teachers might be "related to the emotional nature of the teaching profession" (p. 3). In addition, according to Nias (1996) feelings are firmly connected to cognitions, social and cultural environment, and "the fiercest of their negative emotions are currently caused by interactions with peers or superiors rather than students" (p. 295). In addition, negative and harmful emotions (i.e. depression) lead teachers to leave their job (Frenzel, Goetz, Stephens, & Jacob, 2009; Schutz & Zembylas, 2009).

Schonfeld (1992) as a result of a longitudinal study believed that work setting (such as unmotivated students, overcrowded classrooms) could be a predictor of teachers' willingness to continue their job.

Teacher stress has known as a global concern, taking into consideration that about a third of the teachers participating in a variety of studies around the world stated that they considered teaching as extremely stressful (Borg, 1991).

Recently, Akbari and Moradkhani (2010) explored relationship between teaching experience, and teacher efficacy among 447 Iranian EFL teachers. The results showed that experienced teachers experienced a significantly higher level efficacy.

As cited in Bruce 2009, "Strategies to avoid burnout include reducing stress, keeping personal health strong, building a strong social network, obtaining clear expectations in all facets of one's professional life, improving time management, participating in a mentoring program, and self-reflecting on personality characteristics that may be contributing to stress and burnout." (p. 57).

B. *Teachers' Self-efficacy*

More than a century ago, Dewey (1903) argued that all teachers should have "some regular and representative way in which he or she can register judgment upon matters of educational importance, with the assurance that this judgment will somehow affect the school system" (p. 199).

Bandura (1997) proposed self-efficacy as perceived "... beliefs in one's capabilities to organize and execute the courses of action required to produce given attainments" (p. 3).

Social cognitive theory suggested that a school's cultural environment affect individual self-efficacy. For instance, research proposed that school environment, or "teachers' perceptions of psychosocial dimensions of the environment of the school" (Rentoul & Fraser, 1983, p. 21) are certainly associated to teachers' feelings of efficiency (Hoy, 1996) and may be not positively related to burnout (Trent, 1997) and turnover (Norton, 1998).

Teacher's self-efficacy form how teachers behave in their classes and have a great impact on the learning setting and environment. The ability of teachers to provide a supportive condition for learners and motivating them (even struggling learners) shows that teachers are significantly important to the extent their learners are attending to and interested in the lesson (Pines, 2002).

Markley (2004, as cited in Ghasemi & Hashemi, 2011) stated about the important role of English language teachers in their academic success and learners' learning that highly depends on teachers and their methodologies in their classes.

Teachers' methodologies and their actions in the class and the way they recognize and arrange instruction extremely related to their ideologies of successful teaching and their ideas about teacher efficacy (Ghaith & Shaaban, 1999; Chacón, 2005).

Then, the teachers' ideas of a successful teacher can extremely affect their teaching and accordingly their learners' learning (Dembo & Gibson, 1985; Goddard, Hoy, & Hoy, 2000).

It is assumed that teacher's self-efficacy may decrease if teacher believes that factors like students' ability and home environment are of more importance to learning than the teachers' influences. However, Rotter (1966) maintained that teacher self-efficacy increase if teachers believe that education could influence learners' behavior and progress.

Rots et al. (2007) maintain that the basis of teachers' turnover could be found in the quality of early teacher experience and novice teacher commitment. There are also researches that propose the practice time is the most powerful part in teacher education (Roness & Smith, 2010; Smith & Lev-Ari, 2005; Wilson, Floden, & Ferrini-Mundi, 2002).

Further, Vaezi and Fallah (2011) explored the connection between self-efficacy and anxiety in a sample of Iranian EFL teachers in private language institutes. The results showed an important negative correlation between self-efficacy and stress.

Akbari and Moradkhani, 2010, studied relationship between teaching experience, academic degree and teacher efficacy among 447 Iranian EFL teachers. The results of data analysis revealed that experienced teachers (with more than three years of teaching experience) had a significantly higher level of efficacy, efficacy for classroom management, efficacy for student engagement, and efficacy for instructional strategies compared to their novice counterparts.

III. METHODOLOGY

A. Participants

Participants of this study were 616 EFL teachers from different provinces of Iran. Selection was done from all available subjects who were considered as professional experienced teachers having university education (Bachelor: 353; Master: 253 and PhD: 10). They were both males (199) and females (417) and aged between 20 and +40 years old with a range of between -1 and +10 years of teaching experience. Their field of study was TEFL (419), English Translation (156), and English literature (41). All of them were supposed to pass TTC whether in University or Institute.

B. Instruments

The needed data for this study were gathered through the application of one standard and one modified questionnaires: The Maslach Burnout Inventory (MBI; Maslach & Jackson 1981, 1986) and a researchers-made questionnaire of self-efficacy. In addition, demographic form asked about the participants' demographic information including age, gender, province, and years of teaching experience.

1. Teacher's burnout scale

The Maslach Burnout Inventory (MBI; Maslach & Jackson 1981, 1986) that is one of the universal instruments used for assessing burnout was used in this study. The questionnaire consisted of three sub-dimensions; emotional exhaustion sub-dimension (EE, 9 items, maximum score – 54), desensitization sub-dimension (D, 5 items, maximum score – 30), and personal accomplishment sub dimension (PA, 8 items, maximum score – 48). Higher emotional exhaustion and desensitization sub-dimensions and lower personal accomplishment sub-dimensions cause high burnout status (Maslach & Jackson, 1981).

Prior research confirmed the validity, reliability of this questionnaire (Iwanicki & Schwab, 1981; Gold, 1985). Additionally, reliabilities for data gathered from each of the three scales ranged from .76 to .90 (Iwanicki & Schwab, 1981) and .72 to .88 (Gold, 1985). Reliabilities for data in the present study were similar and acceptable (EE: .89, DP: .71, PA: .71).

2. Teacher's self-efficacy scale

For measuring teachers' self-efficacy a researchers made questionnaire was designed based on the (Tschannen-Moran & Woolfolk-Hoy 2001) and (Bandura, 1997) Instrument Teacher Self-efficacy Scale, and (Murdoch, 1997) Good Teacher's questionnaire.

This 30-item researcher-made questionnaire was conducted according to the following 5 subscales: efficacy to influence decision making (2 items, maximum scores – 10), instructional efficacy (15 items, maximum score – 45), disciplinary efficacy (2 items, maximum score – 10), efficacy to enlist parental and community involvement (3 items, maximum score – 15), and efficacy to create a positive school climate (8 items, maximum score – 40). Each item is measured on a 5-point scale: "nothing, very little, some influence, quite a bit, a great deal."

Two experts in the area of ELT validated the questionnaire and the reliability was estimated using Cronbach's Alpha .9.

C. Procedure

In this study, 616 participants who are all Iranian ELT teachers in different language schools from different cities were selected. They were from both genders and from different ages with different years of experiences. They were selected according to Morgan's table of sampling and based on availability of subjects.

Surveys are usually conducted by using interviews or questionnaire or both. In this study, for collecting the data, questionnaires in the form of papers and online (using Google drive) were spread up to different English Language teachers of different ages and years of experiences to answer the questions. These teachers were from different subfields of the study within English Language field. Most of them were almost from six big provinces of Iran (Tehran, Semnan, Khorasan Razavi, Yazd, Bandar Abas, Qom and others). Collecting data started at April 2013 and lasted for about 3 weeks. The probable needed time for filling out both questionnaires was about 10 minutes.

Gathering data was summarized by the use of SPSS software. Then, the correlation between these two variables was calculated.

IV. RESULT

Table (1) presents categorization of sub-scales of burnout and self-efficacy scales and their related Cronbach Alpha reliability coefficients based on the data collected from the 616 participants of the study.

TABLE 1.
CLASSIFICATION OF DIFFERENT ITEMS OF BURNOUT AND SELF_EFFICACY SCALES, CRONBACH ALPHA COEFFICIENT (A)

Scales/sub-scales	Items	(α)
Burnout		
Emotional Exhaustion	1, 4, 9, 10, 15, 16, 18, 20, 22	.89
Reduced Personal Accomplishment	3*, 6*, 7*, 12*, 13*, 17*, 19*, 21*	.71
Depersonalization	2, 5, 8, 11, 14	.71
Self-efficacy		
Efficacy to Influence Decision Making	1, 2	.82
Instructional Efficacy	3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10, 11, 12, 13, 14, 15, 16, 17	.87
Disciplinary Efficacy	18, 19	.71
Efficacy to Enlist Parental and Community Involvement	20, 21, 22	.71
Efficacy to Create a Positive School Climate	23, 24, 25, 26, 27, 28, 29, 30	.74

* Scored in reverse order

Pearson product-moment correlation was conducted to examine the role of teachers' self-efficacy in their burnout. The results indicated significant negative correlations between self-efficacy and burnout ($r = -0.61, p < 0.01$). This is in accordance with Vaezi and Fallah (2011) that explored a significant negative correlation between self-efficacy and job stress among a sample of Iranian EFL teachers in private language institutes.

Moreover, as table 2 revealed all sub-scales of teacher self-efficacy were negatively correlated with teachers' burnout as follows: burnout and (1) efficacy to influence decision making ($r = -0.21, p < 0.00$), and (2) instructional efficacy ($r = -0.61, p < 0.01$), (3) disciplinary efficacy ($r = -0.46, p < 0.01$), (4) efficacy to enlist parental and community involvement, ($r = -0.30, p < 0.01$) and (5) efficacy to create a positive school climate ($r = -0.51, p < 0.01$).

TABLE 2.
CORRELATION BETWEEN TEACHERS' SELF_EFFICACY AND BURNOUT

Burnout	(r)
Total Self-efficacy	-0.58**
Efficacy to Influence Decision Making	-0.26**
Instructional Efficacy	-0.60**
Disciplinary Efficacy	-0.46**
Efficacy to Enlist Parental and Community Involvement	-0.34**
Efficacy to Create a Positive School Climate	-0.43**

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

In addition, two components of teacher's burnout, namely Emotional Exhaustion, and Depersonalization were negatively correlated with teachers' self-efficacy as follows: self-efficacy and (1) Emotional Exhaustion ($r = -0.49, p < 0.01$), and (2) Depersonalization ($r = -0.52, p < 0.01$), but the third component, namely (3) Reduced Personal Accomplishment, is positively correlated with teachers' self-efficacy ($r = -0.43, p < 0.01$).

These findings are similar to the study of Hakanen, Bakker and Schaufeli (2006) that revealed both emotional exhaustion and depersonalization correlated negatively with turnover and health among Finnish teachers.

On the other hand, a positive relationship was found between personal achievement and self-efficacy ($r = .54, p < .001$). The increase in feeling of success among the teachers leads to an increase in self-efficacy. Moreover negative relationship was found between depersonalization and self-efficacy ($r = .43, p < .001$).

To analyze the data further, linear regression analysis was conducted to find out to what extent self-efficacy might have predictive rule in teachers' overall burnout.

The results indicated that teachers' total score of self-efficacy was a negative predictor of the dependent variable. In this analysis, Total Self-efficacy and its constructs explained 40% of the variance in teachers' burnout. Of these variables Instructional self-efficacy made the largest unique contribution (Beta = $-0.46, sig. = 0.000, part = -0.29$) and Efficacy to create a positive school climate also made a statistically significant contribution (Beta = $-0.15, sig. = 0.000, part = -0.1$).

Considering different provinces, the results revealed significant negative correlations between self-efficacy and burnout in Tehran ($r = -0.62, p < 0.01$), Khorasan-Razavi ($r = -0.58, p < 0.01$), Yazd ($r = -0.76, p < 0.01$), Bandar Abas ($r = -0.65, p < 0.01$), Semnan ($r = -0.73, p < 0.01$), and others ($r = -0.69, p < 0.01$).

These indicated that the higher significant negative correlation in case of province was for Yazd, and there was no significant correlation between teachers' burnout and their self-efficacy in Qom province ($r = -0.22, sig = 0.9, p > 0.05$).

Results of the study revealed significant correlation at the level of B.A. ($r = -0.51, p < 0.01$) and higher in male teachers. Also the correlation is significant at the M.A. level ($r = -0.73, p < 0.01$), and higher in females. However, the correlation is not significant in PhD level ($r = -0.15, sig = 0.7, p > 0.01$). Therefore, these findings and the following tables revealed feeling of burnout was higher for M.A. teachers and no sign of burnout for PhD teachers.

Moreover, considering teachers' field of the study, the result showed a significant negative correlation between teachers' burnout and their self-efficacy as follow: TEFL ($r = -0.64, p < 0.01$), English translation ($r = -0.52, p < 0.01$), and English Literature ($r = -0.64, p < 0.01$). Moreover, analysis showed that correlation was higher in male teachers in TEFL, but higher for female teachers in 2 other fields.

In addition, qualitative data that gathered using two open-ended questions revealed that there was similarities among the teachers both in how burdened they felt and how it might be prevented.

The teachers perceived financial issues as being the most demanding and problematic element of their work in terms of burnout (27%), for example, one teacher stated that "payment principles don't appreciate your efforts."

Moreover, Open-ended questions showed that many teachers believed in lack of self-confidence and motivation as the reasons of burdening (12.8%). Several teachers believed that they had some trouble with the materials and books they taught (10%), for example "use of inappropriate methodology for the subject being taught is one of the main reasons."

A lack of professional and qualified teachers, educational rules and policies, not positive and friendly atmosphere among colleagues/supervisors and managers, students with behaviour problem and not qualified supervisors and managers were characteristic of the reasons that were considered as burdening by the teachers.

V. DISCUSSION

The purpose of the present study was to investigate the relationship between self-efficacy and burnout among Iranian EFL teachers in private language institutes. Moreover, demographic variables including teachers' field of the study and their level of qualification were considered to determine any significant effect of them on teachers' burnout. The results indicated significant negative relationship between teacher self-efficacy and burnout. This finding is in agreement with previous theoretical studies on the role of self-efficacy in burnout (e.g. Zamani Rad, & Rohany, 2010; Vaezi, Fallah 2011; Devos, & Paquay, 2012). The size of this correlation indicates that the higher the teachers' self-efficacy, the less likely they are to experience burnout.

The findings proposed that some EFL teachers, mainly younger feel more success in their profession, and they could be more successful at reducing the level of burnout. This may have suggestions for teachers' well-being, motivation and teaching efficiency and accordingly emphasize the value of setting up some courses for EFL teachers to increase efficacy.

It was also found that there was significant difference in the teachers' self-efficacy and feeling of burnout with respect to teachers' field of the study and their level of qualification.

The results also indicated a negative correlation between EFL teachers' self-efficacy and years of teaching experience, as well as age. In other words, teachers' self-efficacy tends to decrease over time and with every year of teaching. This is not in accordance with findings of Chester and Beaudin(1996) who revealed that beliefs are mediated by the teachers' age and prior experience. These results were also in contrast with those of Campbell (1993) who showed teachers with more experience were more efficacious.

Furthermore, qualitative data suggested that there was similarities among the teachers both in how burdened they felt and how it might be prevented. The teachers accounted different kinds of reasons causing burnout and low level of self-efficacy. For example they indicated financial issues as the most demanding and problematic reasons of burdening. Moreover, several teachers believed that they had some trouble with the materials and books they taught (10%), for example "use of inappropriate methodology for the subject being taught is one of the main reasons."

A lack of professional and qualified teachers, educational rules and policies, not positive and friendly atmosphere among colleagues/supervisors and managers, students with behavior problem and not qualified supervisors and managers were characteristic of the reasons that were considered as burdening by the teachers.

In addition, data revealed clearly that the majority of teachers reported that modernized work place and being up-to-date could be the best solution as one stating that" using internet for being updated on regular basis, taking part in teacher development courses like TESOL, exchange experiences with my fellow teachers".

As the second influential contribution for removing or preventing burnout, 21% complained about their low salaries. They compared their salaries to the cost of living.

The third frequently mentioned solution (13%) for burdening was asking for help from friends...and observing other classes. One teacher commented, "I can get some help from professional people."

VI. CONCLUSION

To summarize, the data analysis revealed that teachers consider different factors as the main cause of burnout among teachers. They have different priorities and this range of priorities leads to considering different factors as the underlying causes of burnout among teachers. It seems that different teachers get burned out differently and it makes the task more grueling. All the aforementioned factors have to be considered by all policy makers, managerial sectors and even syllabus designers in all processes of their decision making. To obliterate all these underlying causes, cooperation among different educational sections seems necessary. It means to reduce the amount of burnout among teachers the involvement of different groups is necessary.

Moreover, according to the findings of this study, it is not reasonable and fair to critic a teacher according to only one of his/her qualities. Therefore, knowing how individual differences in teachers result in various performances in the class are of important issues to overcome teachers' problems. Further research is needed to include a comparison of teachers in private and public settings, since the teachers studied in this research were from private institutes.

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The Application of Body Language in English Teaching

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Abstract—In English teaching, with the constant reform of teaching methods, body language as a kind of nonverbal language plays a very significant role in the interaction between teachers and students. It not only can express the speakers' intention more accurately and effectively, simplify the teaching instruction, stimulate the students' interest, optimize the purpose of English teaching and enhance teaching effectiveness, but also can help improve the students' ability of listening, speaking, reading and so on. Through literature review, by inducing and summarizing, this paper did a survey on several kinds of body languages and their some aspects, such as their features, importance, etc. This paper aims at helping English teachers understand the application of body language in teaching, and encouraging them to try using body language in classes in order to assist their teaching. The English teachers in new times should use body language properly in their class teaching and bring its function in language teaching into full play to achieve the best teaching effects.

Index Terms—body language, English teaching, nonverbal language

I. INTRODUCTION

Now China's English education is undertaking reforms. Traditional education plays too much attention to instilling the knowledge into the students. Such cramming method of teaching brings up the students who have good marks but low ability. Today's English education requires students to communicate in English. Teachers are also required to teach English nearly without Chinese expression all the class time. However, because of the limitation of students' vocabulary, teachers should take some other effective ways to support English teaching. Body language can help to explain what the teachers mean. Teachers also can deepen students' understanding and memories with the aid of body language. When the communication between teachers and students becomes more and more important with the developing of English education, the use of body language can support teaching and help teachers get better teaching results.

As is known to all, classroom teaching is one kind of communicative activity between teachers and students. Some students are absent-minded, which may lead to the failure of communication in classroom. Apart from the students' subjective reasons, the teachers also have responsibility for this phenomenon. Teachers need to work hard to captive and sustain the attention of students in order to engage them to focus on the lessons. Actually, in some cases, nonverbal communication is more important than the verbal one in the communication between teachers and students. Such as known to all, volume, speed and tone of voice will stimulate the students' response directly. Human body language, as a nonverbal communication, including gestures and facial expressions, is actually often used to communicate in countless subtle and complex ways. In class, most of students are often more attentive to what teachers do than what they say. To arouse students' interest in learning English and to help them learn better, teachers have to try their best to think of as many ways as possible to motivate students' enthusiasm, and body language is one of them. In order to improve students' English mentalities, teachers should use Chinese sparingly, especially in the background of nowadays' quality-oriented education. And body language has become the necessary media. Body language of both teachers and students plays an active role in teaching English class. Teachers accompanied by gestures and facial expressions could create visual effects. It helps teachers express their own ideas and viewpoints more accurately and vividly to draw the attention of students. When teachers add body language to English teaching, students will be interested in learning English. What's more, students can learn to maintain long-term memory. This is a wonderful magic that body language has.

As we can see, in school education, body language plays a positive role not only in class teaching, but in shaping students' characters. Students often respect their teachers; even imitate teachers' words and actions, sometimes subconsciously. Therefore, teachers should understand the body language correctly, and master the methods and principles of body language stably. As an English teacher in the new times, we should help students grasp the foreign language with new teaching technique, and body language can take this role.

In one word, body language is helpful for English teaching. In this article, the theoretical study and application of body language will be discussed.

A. Definition of Body Language

Body language is a term for different forms of communication using body movements or gestures instead of, sounds, verbal language, or other ways of communication. Body language is the process of communicating what you are feeling

or thinking by the way you place and move your body rather than by words (Hornby, 2006). Although we may not realize it when we talk with others and send messages to the people around us, we make ourselves understood not only by words, but also by facial expressions and body movements. We call it body language, which studies the meaning of all parts of body. It includes many nonverbal behaviors, e.g. eye contact, gestures, postures, facial gestures, touch, and so on. It can deliver different information, making a set of system which is the same as language signal (Yu Aihong, 2002). For example: A smile and handshake indicate welcome, waving one's hand means "goodbye", nodding the head is a way to show agreement while shaking it means disagreement. Body language is a kind of nonverbal communication and it forms parts of category of paralanguage, which describe all forms of human communication that are not verbal language.

B. Features of Body Language

1. Intuitional feature

Teachers use their facial expressions to afford information or give some commands in the classes. Using body language in English teaching can help teachers to deepen students' understanding and impression. Visual body language can arouse students' interests in English studying. For example, when the teacher teaches the word "cry", he or she can show a crying face. Teachers can get a more intuitional teaching result if they use body language properly.

2. Communicative feature

We cannot forget the importance of body language when teachers communicate with students. Students need to learn the communicative English, so they should be more active in the classroom teaching. Because traditional teaching method cannot arouse student' interests, we can create a comfortable and interesting atmosphere by the means of body language and put students in the central position in English learning. If teachers use their body language comfortably, they can assist the communication between with their students.

3. Suggestive feature

Actually sometimes students understand the English knowledge by guessing from teachers' body language. The students have rich imagination and they can get much information from teachers' body language. For example, when teachers design a communicative scene, they can take advantage of the vivid body language to help them imagine, which can give them a good context. In this way, can the students understand the text easily.

In a word, body language has proper features for English teaching. A qualified teacher should learn to use body language in English teaching. Body language can become a perceptible tool in the future education.

II. NECESSITIES AND IMPORTANCE OF BODY LANGUAGE IN ENGLISH TEACHING

English teaching is a very important part of the school education, and body language plays a positive role in cultivating the students' characters in school education. Body language is a significant means through which people get to know each other and communicate with each other. To be brief, body language is a kind of language through gestures, manners and countenances, which include eye contact, facial expression, and gestures and so on. As mentioned above, our nonverbal communication occupies almost 50 percent of our daily communication while words themselves take up only 7 percent. Our bodies put forward messages so often that sometimes we communicate a lot more than we realize (Chen & Watts, 1992). The foreign language teachers are expected to perform actively in class, for example to dance joyfully, make vivid gesture as an actor. They are no longer expected to be kind and cultivated or just stand stubbornly on the platform (Guo Xuehua, 1999). In the current situation, there are three main aspects which is the need of body language in English teaching.

A. Limitation of Students in English Vocabulary and Expressive Ability

The English vocabulary is so abundant that the student cannot remember all of them. And students just can only grasp the words which are used frequently. According to the students' present level and practical situation, body language is required. Body language is one of rich expressive languages in the teaching language, especially in English teaching. Using body language suitably not only can avoid using Chinese to explain English, but also can promote teachers and students to communicate. In this way the teaching effectiveness will be enhanced. For instance, when a teacher wants his or her students to look at the blackboard, he or she just have to point at the blackboard, then the students will understand the order without difficulty despite the fact that they do not catch the key word "blackboard" clearly. Another example, when explaining the form "have done" such as "Have you found a job yet?" The teacher can use a normal speed when reading "we ought to use the form 'have done'", and read slowly when giving examples. Then a more effective way is to use hand gestures to emphasize when the teacher says "have done". He or she can reach out his or her index finger, pauses in the air while giving out the example. This action often makes a deep impression on students about the English language points.

B. Less Interest of Students in English Class

For a non-native learner, English learning is very boring. As the proverb goes "interest is the first teacher." No matter in any fields, a person to be successful, first of all, he must spend a lot of time and energy. Second, he must be interested in it. The strong study interest is the prime motive power of leaning activity. It can stimulate and raise students' study

interest. Therefore, before each class, teachers should make good preparation to make sure that the students can have strong interest through a series of body language. For example, to teach: "What are you doing?" teachers can design the following body language for the context: let the students make the action of waiting, or dancing together with you. Students imitate the body language with teacher, listen and do warm up in the activities to enter the study condition, which can stimulate students' enthusiastic of learning greatly. In the classroom, teachers' behavior will influence students' leaning concentration. Sometimes teachers in their teaching with the use of body language can stimulate the students' interest.

C. *Depressing Atmosphere in English Teaching*

English is a foreign language to students and it is difficult to study well so that students cannot hold the interest in it for a long time. And when they cannot understand what teachers teach, they will not listen to the teachers. Then the atmosphere in English class is depressing. Meanwhile, if the sounds only stay in a horizontal line, students will soon lose their interest. And the rise meter can also affect students' mood. Teaching in order to arouse the attention of each student, teachers should glance around at the students. Teachers' body language attracts the attention of students, help students understand knowledge, and increase their enthusiasm. In this way, can teachers achieve the purpose of improving the teaching results.

In English classes, body language should be frequently used to improve the teaching effectiveness and develop the students' ability.

III. SPECIFIC USE OF BODY LANGUAGE IN ENGLISH TEACHING

A. *Art of Using Facial Expressions*

Facial expression is a "universal language" in human being's society. Humans can show their feelings and emotions through facial expressions, such as happiness, sorrow, and fear. Therefore, teachers should know how to utilize different facial expressions to deal with different situations that appear in the classroom. If a teacher could use his facial expressions well, he would create good studying atmosphere and enhance his teaching effect.

For instance, when a student gives a wrong answer, will the teacher criticize him with an angry face or just encourage him with a smile? The answer is self-evident. English studying is comparatively difficulty for most students. Thus, teachers need to keep students optimistic and perky in English learning. To keep smiling has this magical function.

Some pedagogic professors proposed once, "Teachers should use smile with love to conquer a student's mind." A good English teacher should take the warm smile into classroom teaching. A warm smile could give students comfy studying surroundings. How does the teacher do this? Teachers can tell students some humorous stories in English or let them give some short role-plays. Teachers and students can keep their relationships under a happy and comfy atmosphere. A philosopher once said: "Education is important but it does not mean that teachers should keep a long face in the classroom." When students cannot focus their attention on the text, teachers can use some grandiloquent facial expressions to draw their attentions.

To sum up, if a teacher can use his facial expression diplomatically, he can receive a perfect classroom teaching result.

B. *Art of Using Gestures*

Teachers use appropriate gestures to transmit their minds and show their feelings. It adds persuasion and appeal to the class too.

In the classroom teaching, teacher can do some gestures for expressing what they want students to do. For instance, when a teacher gives the explanation for the sentence "He is fat", he may splay his hands around his haunch. If the sentence is "She is slim", teacher can give a curvaceous model as the letter S. Vivid gestures help students deepen their understanding of English.

Some other simple gestures act the role of conveying teachers' message. For instance, "Come here" (teacher stretches out one hand which points to himself with palm, then beckons), "It's OK" (with thumb upward) and so on.

Overall, gesture has most expressions in body language. Therefore, it has abundant expressions. However, teachers cannot use too fussy gestures to distract students' attentions.

C. *Art of Using Eye Contact*

Everyone knows that eye is the "window" to the soul. From one's eye, we can know his inner question and his attitudes. So, eye contact expresses exquisite emotion. The teacher uses his eye contact artistically to improve his teaching effects. Firstly, eye communication is between teachers and students. The teacher may catch students' regenerative information from their eye contacts. For instance, a student watches the ceiling with dull eyes every now and then, which means he gets side freaked. And if there is a doubt or sparkle in students' eyes, the teacher can know whether or not they have understood the content. That is to say, students' eyes can give some messages to teachers. The teacher should keep in good touch with students through their eye contacts.

However, how does the teacher use eye contact to help English teaching? The teacher may look around the whole class, which can let students feel the teacher's pertinence. If some students do not listen earnestly, the teacher also can

prompt their attentions in the way. Teacher focuses partly on some students for helping them build up their self-confidence to study English and be more active in learning English. If a teacher has expressive eyes, he can control the class better.

D. Art of Using Body Distance

The distance between people still has informative meaning. Body distance is one kind of body language too. In the English classroom teaching, teachers stand in different positions which give students different feelings. Students indicate that when teachers stand near students two to three point five meters, that distance can produce one kind of control. If some students do not concentrate in the class time, the teacher only needs to go nearby place that would change the students' absent-minded condition.

Teachers usually lead students to read in middle school. When the teacher is reading, he can go to students' "space zone". If he does like this, he will control the disciplines and correct their wrong pronunciation properly. Moreover, if the teacher does the dictation with walking properly in the classroom, he can draw students' attentions. If a teacher stands on the platform which is from students four to five meters, it's hard to draw their attentions. Some teachers often complain that they cannot get satisfactory teaching effects when they are teaching in multimedia classrooms.

IV. CONCRETE APPLICATION OF BODY LANGUAGE IN DIFFERENT ASPECTS IN ENGLISH TEACHING

A. Application of Using Body Language in Listening

As we all know, listening constitutes a significant part in our daily communication. To understand others and be understood is a basic purpose in English learning. In this process of training students' listening ability, if teachers use the body language properly, they can achieve better effect. For instance, a teacher can extend his or her arms slowly when he or she says "She lives in a very large house" and open his or her eyes widely with mouth opened when he or she says "She is such a beautiful lady". As a result, the students will have deep impressions that the room is very big and the lady is beautiful.

B. Application of Using Body Language in Speaking

The spoken language is one of the important ways to communicate with others. Chinese students are very shy. They usually can write and read English very well but cannot speak English, so we should try to develop the students' ability of speaking. How can teachers help students overcome their passive attitudes? Body language can arouse and sustain the students' interests of using and learning English. In fact, they are helped to reach the aim in a certain degree by their teacher's body language. In the English classes, the teachers should not only use body languages themselves, but also ask the students to use them according to different situations. For example, a text about when the new students meet for the first time, and they don't know each other. So teachers can introduce themselves first. During the introduction process, the teachers should use the new words and sentences together with a vivid expression and proper gestures as possible as they can. They smile when they say hello to the class, they shake hands with some students saying "Glad to meet you". When they express their interests, they imitate the actions of dribbling and shooting at the basketball, turning pages to indicate reading. After the teachers' introductions, they can create an environment for the students to practice. Indeed, the application of body language in different situations will help to create an interesting and successful lesson.

C. Application of Using Body Language in Reading

Body language is helpful in improving students' reading ability. Here we mainly discuss the usefulness of reading aloud. It can help students to achieve good pronunciation and intonation of English. What's more, it can help them to fully and deeply understand the beauty of the language. As a famous saying goes, a poem is not a poem until it is read. Teachers should tell students to use proper body language while reading loudly. For example, pay attention to where to raise or lower our tone, when to speak softly. To achieve better result, we can adapt the strong or soft parts that are used in music teaching. For instance, we use falling tones in declarative sentences, use rising tones and then falling tones in the selective question sentences. At first the students might feel confused as they are not accustomed to it yet. However, with the help of body language, they can master it more easily. For example, when they read a selective question sentence, they put up their hands in rising tone and put down hands in falling tones. After training for some times, whenever they read the sentences, they will use this body language unconsciously. In a word, fluent English with vivid gestures helps to can create a good learning environment, which will surely motivate students' reading ability.

V. CONCLUSION

We can see that body language is of helpfulness for English teaching. And if we want to deepen the quality education proceeds, we should clear off the traditional boredom and monotone. English classroom will become a stage for teachers and students. For the purpose that teachers should teach their students in comfortable context. They can change the little classroom into a shop, a hotel, a park, even a hospital. Body language can be a good tool for improving the imaginations of the students and helping teacher express their ideas and language points more vividly. And by the body language, they can express some connotation of language that is difficult to express by mouth.

Teaching quality and effect is the core of education, and the use of body language can improve the teaching quality of English class. As a matter of fact, most students enjoy an active atmosphere of English learning instead of a boring and serious one. Since enthusiastic participation is the foremost factor in language learning an active and relaxed learning environment is even more important than teaching itself. In an active and lively class, the students are more willing to cooperate with teacher and attend class conscientiously. And most students consider that body language can help them memorize teaching contents to a certain degree.

In classroom, the teachers frequently make use of various kinds of body language combined with words to organize their teaching activities. The use of body language will help teachers express their ideas and thoughts accurately and lively. The purpose is to ensure that students can understand them clearly. Consequently, teaching activities can be carried out accordingly without any misunderstandings or confusion. In addition, the use of body language can improve teachers' enthusiasm, thus reducing students' lassitude in classes, especially in the afternoon classes. And as a result, the English class teaching can be facilitated.

In the future teaching program, the teachers should have visible and audible teaching material like cards and tapes. People can communicate with each other not only through verbal means, but also nonverbal communication. Moreover, the latter plays an important role. Body language is an important part of nonverbal communication. A great attention is paid to the function and effect of the teachers' body language in English class in recent years. Researchers tell us that the effective use of proper body language can greatly improve the relationship between the teachers and the students. What's more, it can enhance students' learning efficiency and cognitive ability. A successful English teacher knows how to make full use of the body languages such as expression, gesture, eye contact and so on in order to get the best teaching effect. Using body language in English class can not only make the teachers and the students know each other well, but create a relaxing studying environment, and activate students' learning interest and deepen their impression and imagination. The use of body language is completely meet the standards of audio-visual teaching principle, and teachers should try to teach in English from the beginning to the end, together with the corresponding body language. In this way, will the students' ability of English be certainly and greatly improved.

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Perspectives and Achievement of EFL Students in Teaching Culture via Two Modes: Books vs. Books plus Films

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Abstract—Cultural education is a fundamental, often overlooked part of learning a language. Teaching culture in the EFL classroom, however, remains a challenge because culture is a complex and evasive concept. Ideally, maximal exposure of the learner to the target culture would be interacting directly with the native speakers. In the classroom, however, the sociocultural context can be re-created. A literature of a nation, one may claim, incorporates a major part of its cultural heritage. The main objective of this study was to investigate the relationship between the achievements of EFL learners through exposure to culture via reading the simplified version of a literary text plus (for the experimental group) watching its filmic adaptation. This goal was met by asking the students to take multiple-choice tests based on the literary text. The results indicated that using cultural tools enhances learners' achievement in different regards, including reading comprehension, its durability, and the degree of the student satisfaction.

Index Terms—culture education, reading comprehension, EFL learner, *Jane Eyre*, learning durability

I. INTRODUCTION

Effective communication is not just exchanging information, but sharing perspectives, experiences, and ways of thinking. Teaching culture can facilitate a more effective communication, but this requires time and extra effort on behalf of the teacher. In the past, traditional methods of teaching culture included Grammar Translation Method (which focused on the target culture's literature) and Communicative Approach. But these methods offered only limited, sporadic exposures to culture.

To understand a culture, it is essential to understand its components. Mirroring a nation's identity, culture incorporates its history and geography, art and literature, perspectives, practices and products. Literature, as a cultural element, encompasses a nation's values, ideas, and morals. Literary works are remarkably rich in cultural elements. But studying a literary text in order to grasp its cultural aspects requires considerable time. A literary text, on the other hand, is written by a famous writer who uses sophisticated, sometimes ornamented language – which is not easily accessible to the learners. Using filmic adaptations from literary classics can be a strategy or technique for teaching culture in the classroom. Accompanying a literary text (which is often rich in cultural information) with its filmed adaptation (which can induce memorable reactions for EFL learners) allows the teacher to budget his/her time and bridge the gap between language and learning.

In this study, Charlotte Bronte's classic romance, *Jane Eyre*, is chosen as the literary text. The book ranks 10 in the BBC Big Read list (which was a survey carried out in the UK to find the most popular novels of all time). Many simplified versions, as well as filmic adaptations of the book are available in the market.

II. PREVIOUS STUDIES

A. Background on Teaching Culture

As Thanasoulas observes, "Effective communication is more than a matter of language proficiency and that, apart from enhancing and enriching communicative competence, cultural competence can also lead to empathy and respect toward different cultures as well as promote objectivity and cultural perspicacity" (p. 1). It is difficult to draw distinct boundaries between foreign language learning and foreign culture learning. Culture and language are inseparable – which is to say that culture is already being taught implicitly. Larsen-Freeman (2001) regard culture as a fifth skill in addition to reading, writing, speaking and listening; Kramsch (1993) argues that culture is not just the fifth skill or even an aspect of communicative competence, but that culture is the fundamental aspect of all one knows and does:

"Culture in language learning is not an expendable fifth skill, tacked on, so to speak, to the teaching of speaking, listening, reading, and writing. It is always in the background, right from day one, ready to unsettle the good language learners when they expect it least, making evident the limitations of their hard-won communicative competence, challenging their ability to make sense of the world around them" (Kramsch, 1993, p. 1).

Such eminent scholars as Hall (1959), Seelye (1984), Steele (1989), Kramsch (1993), and Lessard-Clouston (1997) have argued that reaching culture in the classroom is highly important. *Culture Bound*, (1986) edited by J. M. Valdes makes an endeavor to highlight the importance of incorporating culture into the classroom. In her influential book, *Context and Culture in Language Teaching* Claire Kramsch addressed the educational challenges of teaching culture, and argued that cultural education is fundamental for communicative competence. In *Teaching Culture: Perspectives in Practice* Patrick R. Moran presented authentic, engaging classroom experiences to show how language and culture are intricately interwoven. Why teach culture, and how to incorporate it into the classroom? Before answering this question, we need to come up with a definition of culture, however tentative it may be.

B. Definition of Culture

The National Center for Cultural Competence defines culture as an "integrated pattern of human behavior that includes thoughts, communications, languages, practices, beliefs, values, customs, courtesies, rituals, manners of interacting and roles, relationships and expected behaviors of a racial, ethnic, religious or social group; and the ability to transmit the above to succeeding generations." *Webster's Dictionary* defines culture as the concepts, habits, skills, arts, instruments, institutions, etc, of a given people in a given period.

According to Hinkel (2001), culture includes rhetorical structure of texts, socio-cultural behaviors, speech acts, etc. Hinkel distinguishes between invisible and visible cultures. Visible culture, he argues, is readily apparent; it manifests in codes of dressing, cooking, celebrations, customs and ways of life, etc. The more complex invisible culture, however, can be found in social norms, perspectives, beliefs, convictions and values.

It is essential to make a distinction between Big C Culture and small c culture. While the former refers to music, literature, and arts in general, the latter marks everyday life habits and behaviors of a certain people. Kramsch refers to the conviction that "language learners are supposed to teach nothing but language; culture is reserved for the professors of literature" (2013, p. 58). But it is impossible to draw a distinct line between these two categories. If we are to confine literature to texts that are meant to be read, interpreted and analyzed by literary scholars, then literature will approach philosophy and science which are universal. But literature of a distinct people is not void of their local morals, values, and ways of thinking and behaving. As Peterson and Coltrane have observed,

"Language learners need to be aware, for example, of the culturally appropriate ways to address people, express gratitude, make requests, and agree or disagree with someone. They should know that behaviors and intonation patterns that are appropriate in their own speech community may be perceived differently by members of the target language speech community. They have to understand that, in order for communication to be successful, language use must be associated with other culturally appropriate behavior" (2003, p. 1).

When students watch the filmic adaptation of a literary text, technology makes cultural education a more immediate and pleasurable objective.

C. Literature and Films as Tools for Teaching Culture

Tools and techniques for teaching culture are various. They include authentic material, convention clusters, role play, culture capsules, internet technologies, semantic mapping, ethnographic studies, literature, film, reading and realia, etc. Innovative methods may seek to combine some of these materials to save time and facilitate a deeper cultural insight for the students. As Lessard-Clouston (1997) notes, there was a period of time in which people learned a foreign language in order to study its literature. Learning or teaching literature was neglected for a period of time (Duff and Maley, 1991), before it was it was revived again in the 1980s.

Scott & Huntington (2000) carried out a study to establish the quality and level of recollection of two groups of students. One group studied a fact sheet about Côte D'Ivoire, while the other group studied a poem on colonialism in Côte D'Ivoire. The results showed that the second group showed empathy towards the Côte D'Ivoire people and their history, whereas the first group recollected little information about them.

Films can be ideal tools which make a (potentially challenging) literary text more accessible to EFL students. Zoreda and Vivaldo-Lima published an article in 2008 on teaching English using a graded literary reader and its filmic adaptation. Their study showed that, using a simplified novel and its film version helps the students interact more enthusiastically and critically with the target culture. Students achieved significant gains in cultural competence after incorporating videos from the target culture in the modules (Herron, Cole, Corrie, & Dubreil, 1999).

The advantage of using films is that they offer students an opportunity to witness behaviors, reactions, and attitudes that may not be obvious in texts. Films encapsulate the way people feel, think, greet, and react in a culture. Films also connect students with language and cultural issues simultaneously (Stephens, 2001), such as depicting "conversational timing or turn-taking in conversation" (Peterson and Coltrane, 2003, p. 2).

Teaching a language is more than teaching its grammar, phonology, and lexis. Teaching cultural norms in a non-judgmental way is of prime significance. Linguistic competence alone is not enough for learners of a language to be competent in that language (Krasner, 1999). Filmic adaptations allow students to observe a variety of cultural

interactions. Teaching culture is not new but incorporating culture into the classroom requires careful organization and a well-designed frame. Using tools, strategies and technology helps to enrich the students' social insight because certain day-to-day interactions such as greeting, addressing, thanking, saying farewell, etc require more than just producing grammatically correct structures. As Thanasoulas argues, "For scholars and laymen alike, cultural competence, i.e., the knowledge of the conventions, customs, beliefs, and systems of meaning of another country, is indisputably an integral part of foreign language learning, and many teachers have seen it as their goal to incorporate the teaching of culture into the foreign language curriculum" (2001, p. 1).

III. THE PRESENT STUDY

This study aims at seeking the relationship between using literary text plus its film adaption (as tools for teaching culture) and students' reading comprehension and the learning durability.

A. Research Questions

- 1) Is there any significant relationship between showing film adaption and students' comprehension?
- 2) Is there any significant relationship between teaching by using film and students' learning durability?
- 3) Is there any significant relationship between teaching by using film and students' enthusiasm?

B. Method

Participants and Setting

The subjects of this study included 80 English learners from Zabansara Language School in Iran. Upper-intermediate and advanced students were selected – as they were believed to be able to speak and write English with a good command of grammatical structure and vocabulary. These learners were divided in one control group and one experimental. Of this pool of subjects, 46 were female and 34 male. Their age range was 15 –24.

Instrumentation

The instruments used in this study were similar in both experimental and control groups, except that the experimental group received a DVD that was a film based on the novel *Jane Eyre* written by Charlotte Bronte. The film was directed by Cary Joji Fukunaga and produced by Focus Feature in association with BBC and RUBY Film Production. The script for the film has been rewritten (supervised by Sylvia Parker). Other instruments in this research were same for both groups (this included *Oxford Bookworm Library Stage 6: Jane Eyre* retold by Clare West. The book contains 2500 head words).

In order to test students' achievement, for each Chapter of the book (taught in a single session), 10 multiple-choice questions were prepared. At the end of each session, the students were asked to answer a multiple choice test that included 10 items. This would be to say that students answered 100 items in total by the end of the course.

In the final session, the researchers administered an interview in order to find out the level of the learners' satisfaction regarding this mode of instruction. In this vein, a questionnaire with graded answers was handed to students (which embarked on measuring learners' level of satisfaction by three factors: group dynamics, tutor facilitators, and learning material).

Data Collection Procedure

The students were divided into two main groups: an experimental and a control group. The classes were taught by the researchers.

The course book contained 10 Chapters, and each session the teacher covered only one Chapter. Students were asked to read a previously designated Chapter before coming to class. Then they were encouraged to discuss the Chapter with other students and share their understanding of the Chapter.

To check the understanding of the students of the content of each session, a 6-minute Test (which included 10 items) was administered. However, in the last session a comprehensive test of the ingredients of all sessions was administered. This also included 10 items. Meanwhile, an interview was also carried out in the last session to uncover the learners' views on the effectiveness of the course and the level of their satisfaction. This procedure was descriptive and designed on a Likert scale.

Data Analysis

SPSS version 16 was used to analyze the collected data. The reliability of the tests was estimated via Cronbach Alpha. Statistical analyses and both descriptive and inferential statistics were used to test the hypothesis:

Ho1: There is a positive relationship between teaching by using films and students' comprehension level.

Ho2: There is a positive relationship between teaching by using films and students' learning durability.

Ho3: There is a positive relationship between teaching by using films and students' level of interest.

IV. RESULTS

A. Test Reliability and Groups' Homogeneity

As students were nominated by different teachers in the Language School, it could be ensured that all participants were at same level of study and there was no need to take placement test before execution of study and they all were in upper-intermediate level of study.

We have got 10 tests which each test contain 10 multiple-choice questions. Cronbach's Alpha is used to test reliability of our tests and it is calculated by this formula: $\alpha = \frac{\kappa}{\kappa-1} \left(1 - \frac{\sum s_i^2}{s_{sum}^2}\right)$ and reliability of 100 items test was 0.701 and it proved that our tests were reliable.

B. Investigation of Research Question 1

Research question 1 asked whether there is significant relationship between using film and students learning. To answer this question at first a group statistics carried out. The comparison of the means of the control and experimental groups indicated that the difference between means of these two groups was significant.

TABLE 1
GROUP STATISTICS

group	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Learning control	40	80.7250	8.59036	1.35825
experimental	40	90.1750	6.63668	1.04935

To further examine the data, T-test was used. T-test is the test of the significance of the difference between two means. In this study, the learning of the participants in the experimental and control groups were compared to see if there was a significant difference. The results of the t-test showed that the experimental group outperformed the control group in all multiple-choice tests.

TABLE 2
INDEPENDENT SAMPLES TEST

	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means					95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
	F	Sig.	t	Df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	Lower	Upper
Learning Equal variances assumed	3.766	.056	-5.506	78	.000	-9.45000	1.71639	-12.86707	-6.03293
Equal variances not assumed			-5.506	73.327	.000	-9.45000	1.71639	-12.87050	-6.02950

The t-test (Table 2) illustrates significance value of .056 and $\leq .05$, which means that Levene's Test was reliable. It also indicates that the two groups had different achievement levels (because of using two different modes of instruction). This is to say that the achievement level was less in the control group as compared to the experimental group.

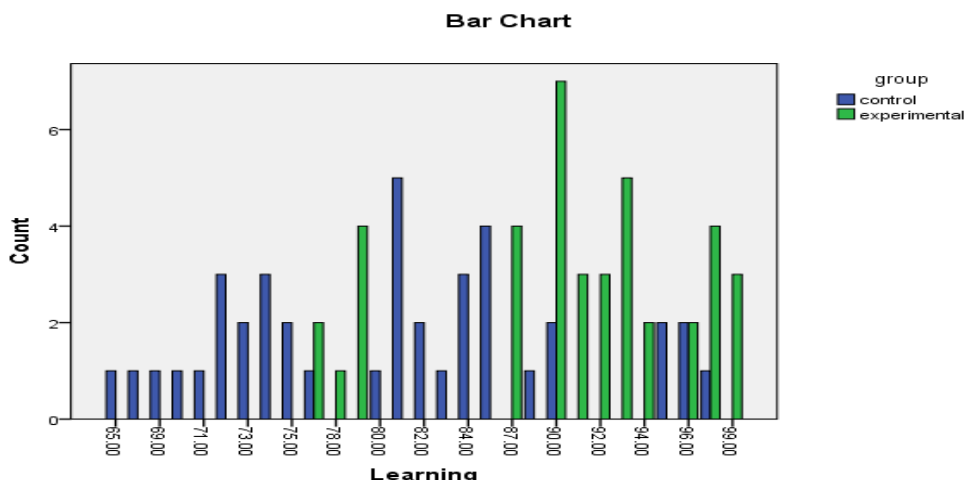


Figure 1

Figure 1 is an illustration of both experimental and control groups in terms of their level of achievement and learning. As it is shown, bars scattering for the students' learning in the experimental group is in a higher level as compared to that of the control group.

C. Investigation of Research Question 2

In order to investigate second research question that there is significant relationship between using film and students learning durability, all steps for first question was repeated but only for the last session test. Because last session’s test was a comprehensive test from all Chapters and students had to recall their learning from past to answers the questions. So another group statistics from students' answers in the final test was run. The comparison of the means of the control and experimental groups in this test indicated that the difference between means of these two groups was significant and that the experimental groups had a more durable learning.

TABLE 3
GROUP STATISTICS

group	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Durability control	40	83.3500	6.76549	1.06972
experimental	40	92.2500	3.84808	.60843

To further examination of data another T-test base on students' last session test was run.

TABLE 4
INDEPENDENT SAMPLES TEST

	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means					95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
	F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	Lower	Upper
Durability Equal variances assumed	5.052	.027	7.232	78	.000	-8.90000	1.23065	-11.35003	-6.44997
Equal variances not assumed			7.232	61.843	.000	-8.90000	1.23065	-11.36015	-6.43985

The T-test in Table 4 illustrates significance of .027 and $\geq .05$, indicating that Levene's Test is not reliable, so we used the second line of data and the hypothesis of equity in mean ($=0.05$) is rejected; it means that the two groups had different levels in learning durability. Due to the fact that the confidence interval of the difference was negative, we conclude that learning durability in control group was less than that of the experimental.

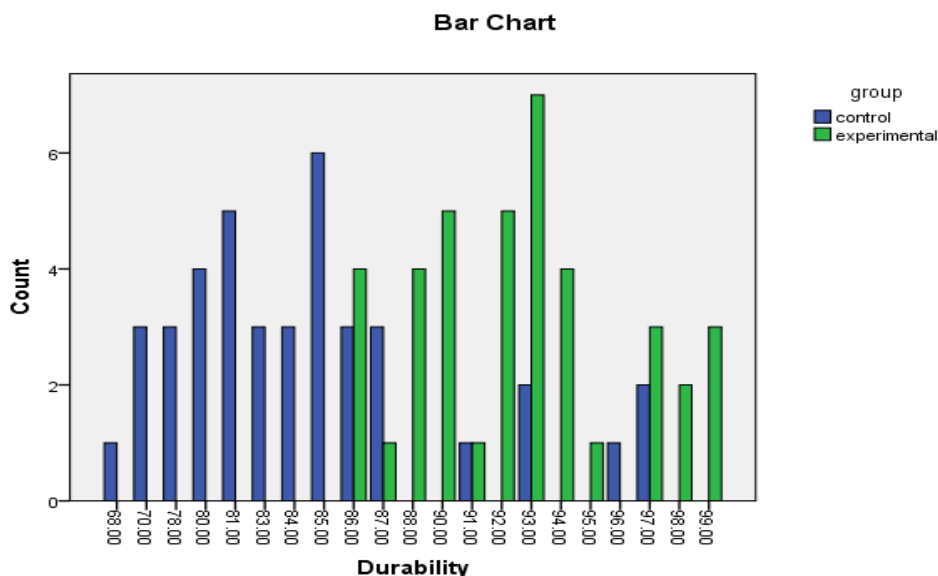


Figure 2

Figure 2 is a comparative mirror of both experimental and control groups’ learning durability. As it is shown, bars scattering for students' learning durability in the experimental group are at higher levels; yet in the control group the bars are rather low.

D. Investigation of Research Question 3

To find out third research question, there is significant relationship between using film in teaching and students' interest. At first a group statistics base on students' interview was carried out. The comparison of the means of the control and experimental groups in this test indicated that the difference between means of these two groups was significant and that the experimental groups had a more interest in learning in this way.

Independent Samples Test

TABLE 5
GROUP STATISTICS

	Group	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Interestedness	Control	40	2.8750	.82236	.13003
	Experimental	40	3.9000	1.27702	.20191

To further examination of data another T-test base on students' interview was run.

TABLE 6
INDEPENDENT SAMPLES TEST

	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		T-test for Equality of Means						
	F	Sig.	t	Df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
								Lower	Upper
Interestedness	6.272	.014	4.268	78	.000	-1.02500	.24016	-1.50312	-.54688
Equal variances not assumed			4.268	66.600	.000	-1.02500	.24016	-1.50441	-.54559

The T-test Table 6 illustrates significance of .014 and $\geq .05$. In this regard the values are not reliable, either. The Table demonstrated that the two groups were different in terms of their interest. In other words, the experimental group was more interested to learn in its definite mode of instruction as compared to the control group who received only book-bound instruction.

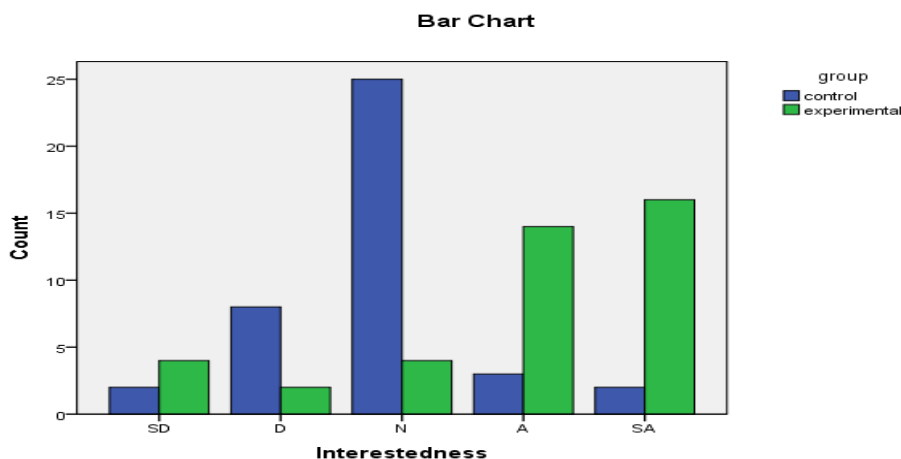


Figure 3

Figure 3 is a comparison of both experimental and control groups as relates to learning interest. The ways the bars are scattered shows in a glance the experimental groups' remarkable level of interest.

V. CONCLUSION AND DISCUSSIONS

Findings of the present study were in line with the research carried out by some researchers in the past years. In this study, taking advantage of a film adaptation of a literary classic in the classroom was found to be highly contributive to the increase in the performance level of the learners, their interest, and their learning durability.

The findings of the present study suggest that watching films has a high correlation with students' performance on reading comprehension and multiple tests. Both the results of the T-test and the interview indicate that the experimental group outperformed the control group which again supports the meaningful and goal-oriented application of multimedia and films accompanied by books in the EFL classroom. Films, literature, and multimedia technology are believed to be effective in cultural transmission. The transmission of social heritage can serve pedagogical purposes. This mode of instruction and language teaching has gained a worldwide popularity and can be integrated into lessons, since ideas

mentioned throughout films bear educational and cultural messages in them. Culture is an indispensable part of any language course due to the fact that language learning entails cultural education. In order to teach foreign culture, teachers can use a number of techniques and materials, among them are novels and films, which are considered as comprehensive text and audio-visual means to meet this goal.

The results are in line with Berwald's (1986) research, which suggested that the use of mass media in classroom environment is useful as it promotes cultural awareness and successful interaction on various topics. The study also confirms Tanrıverdi and Apak's (2008) argument, which states that media sources have an important effect on students as they encourage a positive attitude towards other cultures. Also, our findings affirm Grant S. Wolf's study (2006) which suggested that using video materials leads to inventive and fluent writing.

Clearly, without cultural awareness and knowledge of the culture of the target language, it is hardly possible to communicate accurately and effectively in a foreign context. Incorporating literature and films to the curriculum is an effective tool which provides the students with some cultural insight to the language they are learning. Well-organized strategies and appropriate techniques also pave the way for a teaching that results in a long-lasting and durable learning.

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